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ABSTRACT

Organized under a 1943 Federal grant and later funded by legislative appropriations, the Good Neighbor Commission of Texas coordinates the work of Federal, State, and local government units endeavoring to improve the travel, living, and working conditions of Texas migrant farmworkers and their families. The 1974 annual report chronicles the facts, conditions, and circumstances which focus on the socioeconomic plight of migrant families. An overview of the Texas migrant laborer briefly describes the migrant, his characteristics and background, and the circumstances under which he works and lives. The report also discusses Texas agriculture and migrant labor, alien labor and immigration, and various selected agencies and programs. Current developments in education, housing, health, and employment are also presented. The present status of previous recommendations is given along with new recommendations for consideration by State or Federal authorities, some of which will require legislative action, while others will require administrative directives, and in some cases redirection of agency programs. (NQ)

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TEXAS MIGRANT LABOR
Annual Report
1974

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RC 008 516

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GOOD NEIGHBOR COMMISSION
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The Honorable Dolph Briscoe, Governor
Members of the Legislature, State of Texas

Gentlemen:

In compliance with Sub-section 8, under Section 4 of the Commission's basic law (H.B. 468, 50th Leg., 1947, as amended by S.B. 179, 59th Leg., 1965, and S.B. 676, 62nd Leg., 1971), I am respectfully transmitting herewith the 1974 Annual Report on Texas Migrant Labor.

This report is the only one published by a state agency which covers the full spectrum of migrant labor activity - health, education, transportation, labor camps, housing, legislative development, etc.- related directly to the improvement of the well-being of migrant and seasonal farmworkers. It essentially complies with the Commission's legislative charge, "to coordinate the work of the federal, state and local government toward the improvement of travel and living conditions of migrant laborers in Texas." The report not only chronicles the facts, conditions and circumstances which focus on the socio-economic plight of migrant families on a yearly basis, but it also contains statistical information which can be useful for the development of programs in addressing the needs of migrant farmworkers in Texas.

We respectfully invite your attention to the section of the Report entitled "Recommendations and Comments". This section focuses attention on the present status of previous recommendations, and also sets forth new recommendations for consideration by state or federal authorities.

The Good Neighbor Commission of Texas expresses sincere appreciation for the cooperation of local, state and federal officials, as well as the many private groups and individuals who have provided relevant and valuable information essential to the preparation of this report.

Sincerely yours,

Oscar M. Laurel

Oscar M. Laurel
Executive Director

PREFACE

The Good Neighbor Commission of Texas, organized under federal grant in 1943 and later funded by legislative appropriations, is charged under its basic law to coordinate the work of federal, state and local government units endeavoring to improve the living and working conditions of Texas migrant farmworkers and their families.

In accordance with its legislative mandate, this Commission continues in its efforts to assist in program development and evaluation of Texas projects aimed at bettering the lot of migrant farmworkers most of whom come from the Lower Rio Grande Valley and South Texas.

In surveying conditions which migrants encounter both at home and in their work destinations, this Commission has relied for the past years on the excellent cooperation provided by government and private agencies, as well as its own research, in evaluating operational programs for migrants. This involvement is essential for the preparation of this annual report, which has been published for more than a decade, and which we attempt to make as constructive and factual as possible.

We of the Commission are grateful for the collaboration received and welcome any comments or suggestions that could assist us in making this Report more useful to those persons and agencies involved in serving the needs of the migrant farmworkers of this state.

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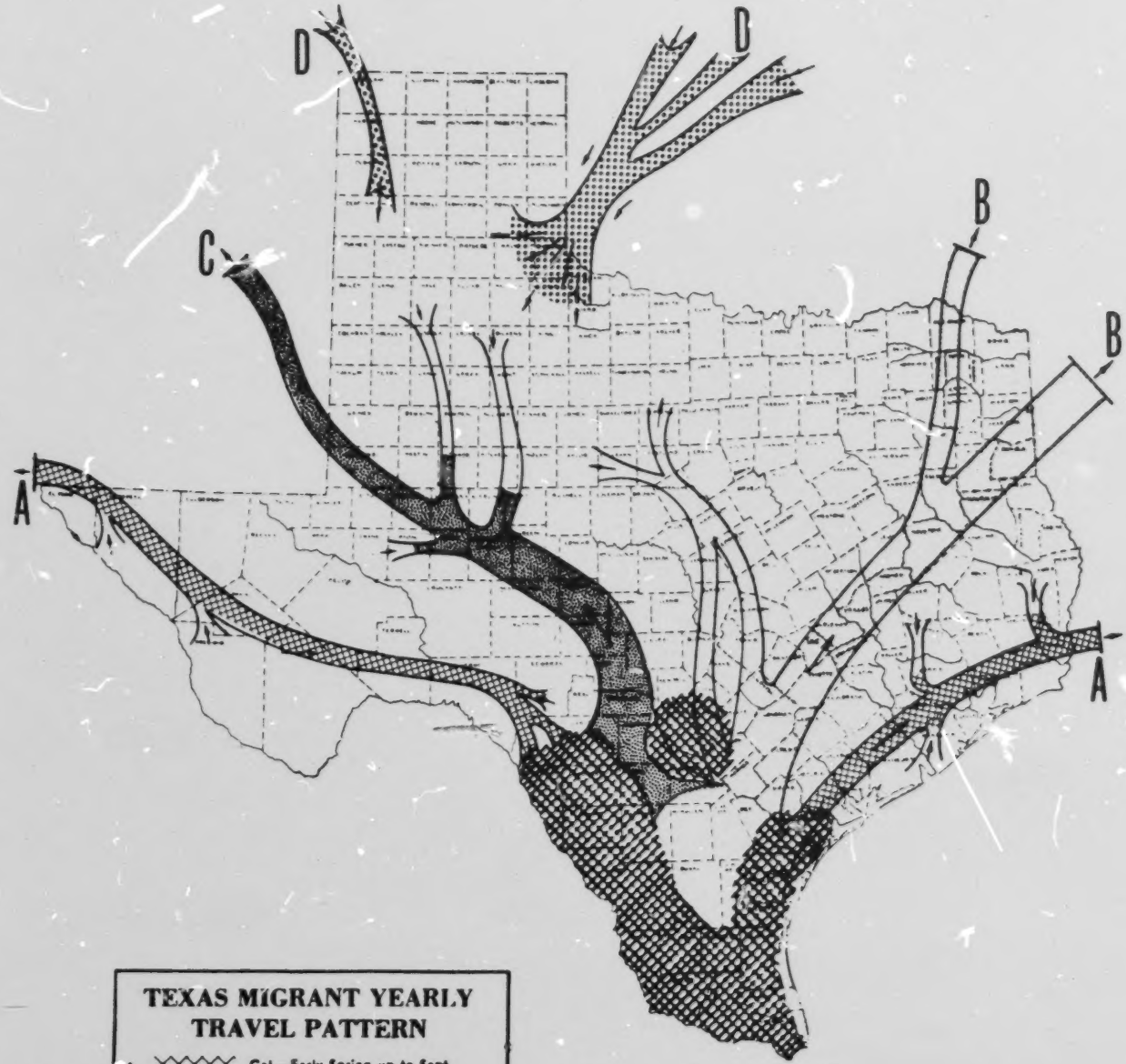

TEXAS MIGRANT YEARLY TRAVEL PATTERN

A — Cal.—Early Spring up to Sept. Fla.—April to June; Dec. to Feb.

B — Main Spring Migration Northward

C — Colo. & Idaho, Wash. & Ore. —Spr. through Fall

D — Returning Late Fall Migration

Principal Source of Migrant Labor

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THE TEXAS MIGRANT LABORER — AN OVERVIEW

Food is man's fuel and without it he simply cannot exist or function. As a consumer item, food is one of the best bargains on the market, but an exorbitant social cost is exacted as part of the bargain. This is the cost of human misery suffered by the migratory farmworkers who help plant, cultivate, harvest and process our seasonal crops. Each year most of the operators of the nation's farms, orchards and nurseries vitally depend upon this "nameless and faceless" people to perform the difficult tasks of agricultural work.

In the face of agricultural plenty and an increasingly affluent society, the migratory farmworkers are caught in an economic and sociological dilemma. The problems are many and the solutions are by no means easy. Whatever is done about these problems must, of necessity, be done in large measure through government. Our work in preparing this Texas Migrant Labor Report, however, leads us to believe that a state's program to care for its people in need also requires active citizen participation. If Texas is truly to alleviate the suffering of seasonal farmworkers, the combined efforts of leaders in government, agriculture, labor, medicine, church and civic organizations are essential. Only in this way, will a lasting solution be achieved.

Migratory farmworkers are people in need who seek out agricultural-related jobs because more stable, better paid employment is unavailable to them. They are marginal workers, who, because they do not have saleable skills, must accept substandard working conditions and inferior wages. It is well to keep in mind that the so-called migrant problem is multifaceted. That is to say, it is a series of interrelated problems involving poverty, illiteracy, poor housing, health needs, community rejection, and the lack of alternative economic opportunities; all are part of the migrant's life. These various factors combine to make the plight of the migratory worker virtually self-perpetuating. Moreover, a technological revolution is presently taking place in the agricultural realm that is not yet completely understood. Automation and mechanical harvesters are displacing thousands of people who are willing to work. While some migrant workers have risen above their living and working conditions by the force of their own talent and energy, the vast majority still remain economically depressed. Uncertainty of employment hovers as a constant threat and many of these workers have never known the meaning of a steady, well-paid job.

It is impossible to have an understanding of the problems of the migrant agricultural worker unless there is some knowledge of the migrant himself, his characteristics and his background, and of the circumstances under which he works and lives.

Some of the major characteristics of the society from which the migrants come are: first of all, a society in which the Mexican American has been a second-class citizen. His educational and economic opportunities have been sharply limited. While his educational opportunities are being improved, the improvements come too late to affect the adults, or even some of the older children. His occupational opportunities, in contrast, are increasingly limited. Agricultural labor is all that he knows and all that is available to him, it is to agriculture — wherever it may be located — that he turns for a livelihood.

His way of life is dictated by habit and tradition, and, because of his limited contacts with the outside world and his few resources, has been subject to few innovations. His desires are few and modest both for his children or for himself. He has had little in the past; the present gives him not much more and the future holds no promise. His ideas about health are distinctly his own, and tied directly to his low educational status and to his unfulfilled aspirations.

The migrant's behavior, like that of any human being, results from the interaction of a number of forces upon whatever characteristics and abilities he has at birth. One of these forces is the culture he shares; his ideas, ideals, attitudes, and behavior patterns which guide his way of life. A second is the expectation of the group in which he currently finds himself, and a third is the unique experiences he has had thus far in his development. All three of these are in constant interaction, and result in his having certain perceptions of himself and of his situation. What he can and should do about his situation in terms of these perceptions is, of course, constantly being modified by the pressures which confront him from day to day.

While these forces, which so largely determine human behavior, operate in the lives of all men, they appear to function in the life of the Mexican American agricultural migrant in a peculiarly aggravating way. Little in his past has prepared him for his present situation; he is now a member of a constantly shifting group; his unique experiences have rarely helped to give him any positive perceptions of himself and/or his situation. Living in one culture, in one place, in one group gives some stability to life for most men. The Mexican American agricultural migrant has the benefit of none of these.

From birth, migrant children progressively learn a sense of their own weakness and inadequacy in comparison with the rest of the population, whose existence they see from the distance of the traveler. They see themselves as smaller, less able to make decisions affecting their own lives, and for reasons not clearly understood by them.

No group of people tries harder to work, indeed travels all over the country seeking work, from sunrise to sunset, seven days a week when the crops are there to be harvested and weather permits. In exchange for the desire to work, for the terribly hard work of bending and stooping to harvest our food, these workers are kept apart like no others, denied rights and privileges others have, denied adequate wages and in all reality considered second-class citizens.

Migrants come, and soon they leave. They know their "place", they know the houses to seek out when they arrive in a work area, the stores where they shop. They usually have no neighborhood churches or movie houses and they join no social clubs and take no country-side trips or picnics.

He has traveled in many parts without ever succeeding in finding his place in society. He is greatly dependent upon the farm labor contractor or crew leader and he is often times dependent upon his children who act as interpreters for him. His hands are hardened with calluses and the tips of his fingers bald from contact with traces of plant treatment chemicals. His skin is the deep copper color, a pigmentation resulting from years of exposure to sun, wind and dust. Because of the color of his skin, eyes and hair, however, he has felt humiliated numberless times by demands that he prove he is an American citizen. He is too defeated to think of changing his life pattern. His prime

concern is to feed his family and his evening prayer is that it will not rain the next day and deprive him of the opportunity to get in many hours of labor. There is no use trying to fool ourselves about the seriousness of their problems or the damage done to them over the generations by the circumstances that not only surround but utterly envelop their lives.

The migratory workers make up a nation within a nation. Not only are they poor, and weak, and isolated, and ignored, and afflicted with all sorts of severe medical problems, but in addition they are wanderers. They fall under no one's jurisdiction. They move along our rural backroads, out of everyone's sight and mind. They go everywhere and yet do not belong anywhere.

Migrant parents and children are fellow citizens of ours, yet in certain respects strangers, foreigners, even outcasts who are utterly removed from the America everyone else can more or less take for granted. Since migrants travel all over America to find work, they are certainly exempt from the charge of "laziness" or lack of initiative of which they are so often accused. In fact they are a determined, hard-working group of people, who get small reward for performing one of the most difficult tasks imaginable.

Within the past two decades, the problems of the migrant laborer in the United States have come to represent a major area of concern to educators, economists, health advocates and politicians alike. Committees and study groups have been created, structured and re-structured for the purpose of examining the social, economic and educational deprivation of the migrant laborer. Recommendations are made and statistics obtained, and here and there a social conscience may be awakened to the point that the statement, "something should be done" is made. But "something" is seldom done and the migrant remains, as he has remained for generations, isolated and exploited.

In looking back, the preceeding pages have shown that the migrant's problems are not those for which there are ready or pat solutions. They stem in part from the economic situations related to seasonal agricultural production, and these are not readily controlled. No less important, however, are the cultural characteristics of the migrant laborer and the particular pattern of life which mobility creates, and his insecure place in the communities in which he lives and labors. Third, and also important, are the basic attitudes toward the migrant in the states and communities in which his work is required.

With factors such as these inherent in the situation, it is inevitable that migrants will have problems and impose problems for communities and states in which they temporarily reside. Many of these problems, if they are to be solved, may require state and federal legislation. Others may demand an integration of goods and activities at an interstate level, and this integration is not always easy to achieve. Still others may necessitate changes in the basic attitude toward the migrant as a person. It is highly doubtful that there can ever be a completely successful approach to all of the problems associated with migration, but there is reason to believe that at least a partial solution can be found, and toward this end we are all striving.

TEXAS AGRICULTURE AND MIGRANT LABOR

From our Nation's 2,264 million acres of land we feed, clothe, and house some 212 million people. Our Nation's cropland resources cover 472 million acres--though not all of that total is actually devoted to crop production in a given year. In fact, at the time of the last agricultural census, the acreage used for crop production amounted to only 71 percent of the land available.

Cropland use is not static. From 1950 to 1962, the acreage of cropland used for crops declined 15 percent as a result of Federal programs aimed at shifting cropland from production to set-aside for soil conservation. Since 1962 crop acreage has fluctuated by several million acres, more or less in balance with crop demand. Productivity per acre of land used for crops has increased more than 50 percent in the past two decades. In general, the adjustments in the acreage used for crops have resulted in increasingly concentrated cropping of the most productive land, both on individual farms and by areas.

The United States Department of Agriculture reports that during the past two decades, farm prices have risen 72 percent as industrial prices gained 50 percent and service charges more than doubled. The striking feature about the farm price rise is that about three-fourths of it occurred in the past two years. Between 1953 and 1967 farm prices were depressed, and in fact, farmers did not receive any higher prices for their products in 1967 than 14 years earlier. The next four years saw a gradual 12 percent price gain and then from 1972 through 1973 a whopping 54 percent increase, which dramatically changed the relationship of farm to nonfarm income; hence what was a 53 percent share of farmers' per capita disposable income in 1960 has increased so that in 1973 it became 113 percent of nonfarm disposable income.

While farm prices still move in two directions, farmers' cost have gone only one way, and that is up. Total production expenses have tripled in the last 20 years as farmers pay a wage bill nearly 2½ times greater than in 1953. Farmers are less able to pass along increased costs than other major economic groups since they deal largely in perishable products that cannot be priced and held for that price--they must be sold when ready.

U.S. agricultural exports reached a record total of $21.3 billion in 1974--an increase of 65 percent from the previous year. However, relatively strong foreign demand and continued high price levels may push the value of exports above that level within the next few years. Higher prices accounted for 85 percent of the fiscal 1974 increase in exports. Fiscal year imports of agricultural products totaled $9.5 billion. Thus agriculture made a positive contribution of $11.8 billion to the national balance of payments, and more than offset a nonfarm deficit of $9 billion. The following chart shows the tremendous increase in dollar value of U.S. farm exports which made 1974 a banner year.

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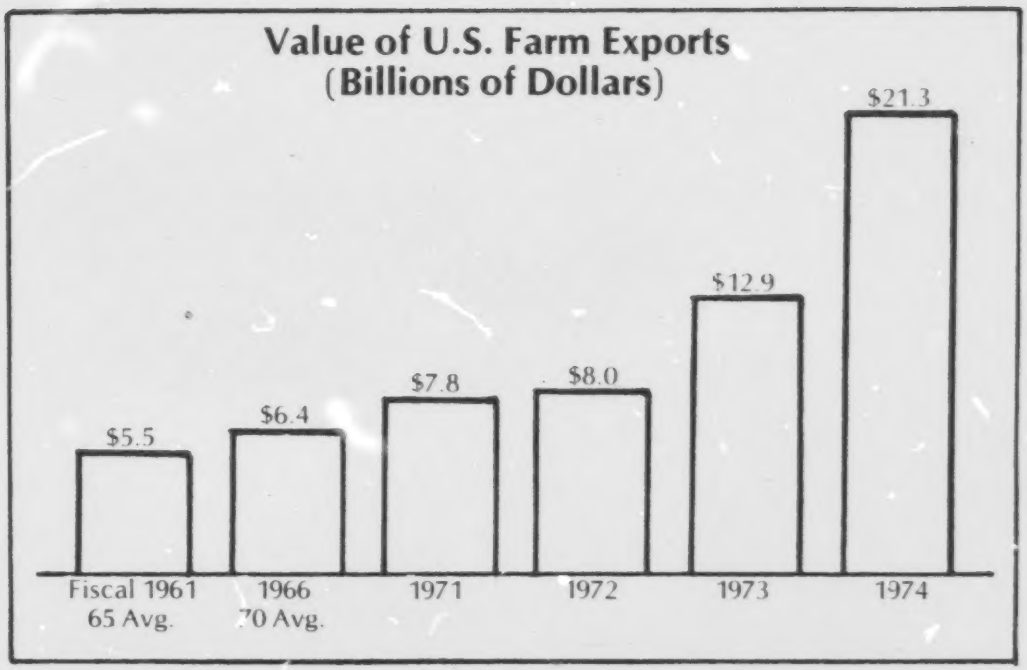

Fiscal 1974 was a record-breaking farm export year, and 10 states could take special pride in the role they played in setting the new high since these ten were the ones that sold nearly $13 billion, or three-fifths, of the total. Illinois, once again, was the pacesetter with nearly $2 billion worth of farm exports, almost 50 percent more than its sales in fiscal 1973. The other leading States and their export sales were: (2) Iowa, $1.8 billion; (3) Texas, $1.7 billion; (4) Kansas, $1.6 billion; (5) California, $1.2 billion; (6) Minnesota, $1.2 billion; (7) Nebraska, $1.0 billion; (8) Indiana, $967 million; (9) North Dakota, $842 million; and (10) North Carolina, $772 million. The export sales of Texas and Kansas in fiscal 1974 were more than double 1973 levels, primarily because of higher prices and increased output of wheat.

Technology often changes the productivity of certain farm inputs and paired with changes in their cost causes the economic relationships to change. In the following chart the U.S.D.A. examines the trends in prices of selected farm inputs. The indexes of labor and machinery are moving the same direction, but the rate of cost increase for labor is 50 percent faster at the end of the 1950-74 period than that for farm machinery. This relationship has helped provide the economic reasoning for the farmer to substitute machinery for labor.

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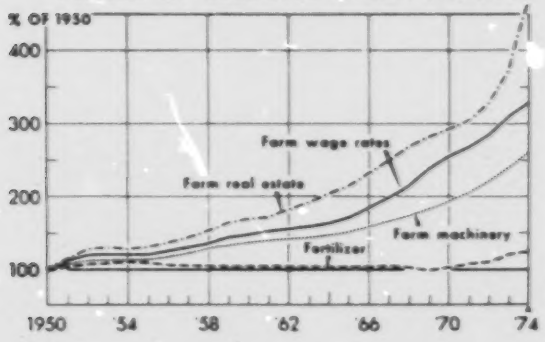
PRICES OF SELECTED FARM INPUTS



The Texas Crop Production Index for 1974, which includes the 14 most important crops, stood at an unbelievable 99 (1957-59 = 100) which represents a drop of 41 points from 1973. The drop is a reflection of the generally poor crop performance in 1974 as production of most major crops in Texas fell far short of levels in 1973.

The Texas Department of Agriculture reports that most of the decrease in crop production in 1974 is directly attributable to short moisture conditions. Moisture was generally adequate for seeding wheat, oats, barley and rye in the fall of 1973 but warm, dry weather rapidly depleted most available water. Inadequate moisture conditions reached drouth proportions over much of the State by early spring. Farmers abandoned wheat and oat crops in a number of localities because of poor crop prospects. Planting of spring crops was delayed from the High Plains to Southcentral Texas and most early stands progressed slowly. A large part of the dryland cotton acreage on the Southern High Plains was not planted for lack of moisture. Relief for much of the State came in late July and early August as moderate to heavy rains covered most of the State. For most areas the rains were too late for farmers to expect to produce normal crops. While excellent moisture was available in most areas from August on, cool weather in September, October and November limited crop development. Harvest was delayed several times on some crops, because of wet weather, but most crops reached completion about on schedule. Both yield and quality of most crops in 1974 failed to measure up to 1973 levels.

Upland cotton production in Texas in 1974 totaled 2.6 million bales compared with 4.7 million bales produced in 1973. The 1974 crop is one of the smallest crops in several years comparing in size and quality with the 2.6 million bales produced in 1971. Yield was only 279 pounds of lint per acre compared with the record yield of 431 pounds in 1973. Harvested acres totaled 4.5 million, down 13 percent from the 5.2 million acres harvested in 1973.

The Texas grain sorghum production totaled 312 million bushels, a reduction of 25 percent from the 1973 record production of 417 million bushels. The yield averaged 52 bushels per acre compared with a record 1973 yield of 60 bushels. Harvested acres were estimated at 6 million, down 14 percent from 1973. Although an excellent crop was harvested from Southcentral Texas to the Lower Rio Grande Valley, short moisture affected crop prospects across the rest of the State. Drouth prevented some farmers from planting part of the planned sorghum acreage on the High and Low Plains and poor stands resulted on much of the land that did get seeded.

0013

The rice production in 1974 totaled 25.8 million cwt., an increase of 23 percent over the 1973 crop of 20.5 million cwt. The yield was 4,494 pounds per harvested acre compared with only 3,740 pounds per acre in 1973. The harvested acres were set at 562,000 compared with 549,000 in 1973.

Wheat production in Texas in 1974 totaled 52.8 million bushels compared with the 98.6 million bushels produced last year. The yield averaged 16 bushels per acre compared to the 29 bushels per acre in 1973.

Contribution of the Three Principal Crops

	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974
Total dollar value: (in billions)	$1.261	$1.132	$1.696	$3.480	$2.875
Percent contribution:					
Cotton	29%	25%	28%	29%	20%
Sorghum	27%	27%	25%	25%	32%
Rice	9%	11%	8%	8%	10%
Total contribution:	65%	63%	61%	62%	62%

U.S.D.A.

The following table shows vividly what is occurring with the total migrant work force on the move within the state. The reader's attention is called to the two important mid-summer months which have shown a drastic decrease. It appears that the demand for migrant farm labor in Texas plummeted by almost 50 percent last year after several years of gradual and orderly decline.

STATEWIDE SEASONAL EMPLOYMENT—INTRASTATE MIGRANTS
(thousands)

Year	A	M	J	J	A	S	O	N	D
1968	1.3	2.2	9.5	13.9	6.4	5.9	5.8	12.0	
1969	1.5	2.6	10.0	20.3	14.5	4.3	5.0	4.4	7.3
1970	2.0	2.1	7.0	19.4	14.6	3.5	1.5	2.7	5.6
1971	1.5	1.4	6.2	17.7	12.6	3.6	1.2	1.6	2.5
1972	1.2	1.4	4.1	16.7	11.8	2.1	1.2	1.6	4.8
1973	.7	1.2	4.0	15.3	12.7	2.2	.8	1.8	4.9
1974	.6	.8	3.2	10.1	7.2	1.1	.4	.7	2.2

Texas Employment Commission

0014

Agriculture in the United States is far advanced in technology. In fact, in recent years it has moved much faster in mechanization and increased productivity than any other segment of the national economy. But some crops still need hand labor, especially in harvesting. If most of these jobs do disappear in the next few years, there will be left behind an ugly residue of children grown into adults with no preparation for sustaining themselves or functioning in our modern economy.

As the use of machines continues to increase in preharvest and harvest activities, the need for seasonal farmworkers continues to diminish. The use of mechanical and electronic-eye thinners has increased appreciably in recent years and although the high initial cost of one of these mechanical devices makes them all but prohibitive to the small growers, the larger growers are starting to purchase additional machines. The potato harvest continues to become more mechanized each year and improvements continue to be made in mechanical diggers so that they can be more readily adapted to use in rocky soil.

Many growers of fresh market vegetables continue to use hand labor in harvest activities, where appearance is tantamount to buyer acceptance, since machines are still in experimental stage and seldom perform adequately. Although progress continues to be made in the mechanization of vegetables for fresh market and for processing, the horticultural evolution of the plants has not kept pace with the improvement of the mechanical harvesters. Despite the dimishing requirements for hand labor due to mechanization, the recruitment of seasonal hand labor continues to be of major importance to the agricultural economy of most States.

The harvest of fruits and vegetables is the primary activity requiring large numbers of seasonal workers. Worker requirements are rapidly changing under the impact of mechanization and it is projected that only 17 percent of the total production of fruits and vegetables is expected to be hand harvested by 1975. Most of the increase in mechanization will come from gains in the mechanical harvesting of wine grapes, cling peaches, and both tart and sweet cherries. In contrast, mechanization of the total vegetable harvest was already 56 percent complete in 1968 and is expected to increase to 75 percent by next year. The harvest of sweet corn, carrots, snap beans, and green peas for processing should be totally mechanized by 1975.

The situation for fruits and vegetables suggests that through 1975 acreage and production will increase. It is expected that the total number of jobs will decrease but the number of higher paid jobs requiring higher skill will increase. Most of the workers displaced, however, will be unable to fill these newly created jobs since they will be mainly unskilled workers.

The Annual Worker Plan, also known as the Rural Manpower Mobility Plan, provides a method by which a migrant crew or family may plan a whole season's itinerary. The objectives of the Plan are to reduce the time lost between jobs by migrant workers and to help provide employers with a dependable labor supply. As is indicated in the following table, the number of placements made in the last six years by the Texas Employment Commission have decreased precipitously. This decline is due in part to federal labor housing requirements, mechanization implications, as well as increases in the number of "freewheelers" and direct recruiters, all of which reduce the number of seasonal workers that avail themselves of T.E.C.'s services.

0015

T.E.C.—ANNUAL WORKER PLAN

(Form 369)

	Openings	Placements	Percentage
1969	67,500	44,500	66
1970	50,000	31,000	62
1971	27,500	17,500	63
1972	22,000	13,600	62
1973	18,900	10,500	56
1974	23,926	8,083	34

Cotton, an industry which seems to survive from one crisis to another, faced in 1974 what could be its most severe test in many years. Lack of demand, too little rain followed by too much rain, higher production costs, low yields, and high interest rates were among the problems that the cotton industry encountered this year.

Cotton planting got underway in the Lower Rio Grande Valley in February and progressed northward at a normal pace through March and early April. Harvest of an excellent cotton crop was completed on schedule in the Coastal Bend, South Texas and Lower Rio Grande Valley. However, short moisture delayed seeding in the Blacklands and East Texas in April and May. On the High and Low Plains, Edward's Plateau and Trans-Pecos areas, short moisture conditions developed into a drouth of serious proportions preventing planting of full intentions. Early stands in these areas made little growth and large acreages of the dryland crop were abandoned.

Production in the Coastal Bend area came to about 108,000 bales, with average yields in Nueces and San Patricio counties above one bale an acre, the highest in their history. Yields in some sections ran above two bales an acre giving farmers cause for renewed enthusiasm about the future of this fiber crop. This apparently rosy local situation was more than offset by crop losses in other areas of the state and the market dropped significantly as demand declined in the world market. Cotton's future in the Coastal Bend looks gloomy, and if the depressed market situation continues through 1975, cotton could become a thing of the past for small farmers in several area counties. The past season was particularly distressing because record yields almost went begging for buyers.

At the beginning of this season, experts were confidently predicting cotton prices of at least 60 cents per pound and were saying that all the crop would be used, either in domestic use or foreign countries. Prices, however, started low, climbed a little and fell again. Current offerings on this year's crop range about 32 to 40 cents a pound. The uncertainty of economic conditions restricted activity in cotton buying and mills maintaining small inventories operated on a hand-to-mouth basis. For 1975, Texas farmers have indicated that they will plant only 4.1 million acres which is about 77 percent of the 5.3 million acres planted in 1974.

The following table on upland cotton production indicates that a large range of fluctuation does take place from year to year and that even though this has very little effect on the migrant and seasonal farmworker, the effect on the state's economy is of great importance.

0016

TEXAS COTTON

Year	Acres Planted	Harvested	Yield	Bales	%Change Prev. Year
1964	6,225,000	5,675,000	348	4,123,000	
1965	5,850,000	5,565,000	402	4,668,000	+11.3
1966	4,265,000	3,968,000	385	3,182,000	-32.
1967	3,960,000	3,525,000	376	2,767,000	-11.
1968	4,450,000	4,125,000	404	3,475,000	+23.
1969	5,175,000	4,675,000	305	2,862,300	-17.5
1970	5,251,800	4,851,000	335	3,247,000	+13.
1971	5,230,700	4,700,000	263	2,579,000	-20.
1972	5,570,000	5,000,000	408	4,246,000	+63.5
1973	5,400,000	5,200,000	429	4,673,000	+9.4
1974	5,300,000	4,500,000	279	2,620,000	-44.

Statistical Reporting Service

An evident shortage of jobs in West Texas and the Rolling Plains occurred in the ginning industry. The 1974 recruitment of ginners and gin hands began early in the year in all areas of Texas, but due to low yields only 444 placements were made by the Texas Employment Commission; this can be compared with 1,571 placements in 1973. The following table provides a break-down of cotton gin worker recruitment for the last several years.

COTTON GIN WORKER REFERRALS BY T.E.C.

	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974
Brownsville			31	13		1
Corpus Christi			36	76	130	13
Crystal City	10	23	2	11	29	
Eagle Pass	4	21	17	35	155	7
Edinburg	123	148	87	100	100	20
El Paso	44	100	120	173	514	253
Elsa	60	53	38	39	38	
Harlingen			11	24	60	19
Laredo	57	72	31	109	183	83
McAllen		79	28	128	167	12
San Angelo				31	32	
San Antonio		6	3	13	34	
Weslaco	2	68	46	73	52	16
Temple/Waco					27	4
Austin District				46		
Dallas/Ft. Worth				27	17	
Houston District				27	14	
Others		19		22	18	15
Total	300	589	450	947	1,571	444

0017

The Sugar Cane Industry in Texas:

The mechanics of harvesting and processing sugar cane in the Lower Rio Grande Valley have changed markedly in the 50 years since the industry once boomed in the 1920's. Activities surrounding the new industry which was revived in 1973, portray the change in many ways. The start of the 1974 season was signaled by the first burning of the trash that collects in the cane fields. This is burned off to prevent clogging of giant cane-cutting machines. Half a century ago the burning was not necessary since the harvesting was done by hand. The processing of cane was more primitive in the 1920's involving only small grinders and cookers that would be dwarfed by the $26 million Raymond Cowley Sugar House near the town of Santa Rosa and on the line between Hidalgo and Cameron counties. The new Sugar House where the cane is ground and cooked into raw sugar and molasses, is employing some 700 men and women who work as cane burners, fire truck operators, tractor drivers, harvesters and loader operators, and other specialties in the sugar mill.

The new sugar industry was established by 105 Valley farmers, based on a six year research and experimental study program climaxed by a massive financing effort, today involves 28 giant cane harvesters, 44 field tractors and trailers, 50 highway tractors, four fire trucks, eight fork-lift trucks with 33,000 pound capacities, and 35 other miscellaneous types of mobile equipment. The cane burners signaled the beginning of the 1974 harvest when they put the torch to 100-acre plots in four separate quadrants of the Valley. Burning is limited to 400 acres a day under an Environmental Protection Agency order. The burning, necessary to the cane harvest, proceeds under close supervision and though a nuisance at times, has been proven by air control tests to be harmless. The wind, moisture and atmospheric conditions determine when and how firing will be done. Once the blaze starts, the flames consume the ground level trash and dead leaves on the stalks and as the fire moves through the field it drives ahead of it rodents, snakes and other small animals.

The sugar house where the grinding and cooking are done has many novel machines for which Valley crews have been trained in operation. The sugar mill has two 2-million gallon syrup tanks and a dozen or more 22-ton rollers which grind the cane. The cane pulp from the sugar processing is used to fire steam boilers which power a generating plant which produces a good portion of the electricity needed to run the sugar factory.

The Valley sugar industry in 1973 produced 36,278 tons of raw sugar and more than five million gallons of molasses. The 1974 crop, which consisted of 28,400 acres of cane, produced approximately 98,000 tons of raw sugar. Many persons believe that within the next few years the sugar cane industry will play a very important role in the development of field jobs for workers who reside in the Lower Rio Grande Valley area. area.

0018

The average monthly seasonal farmworker employment in 1974 averaged 76,905 monthly, which was considerably below the monthly average of 81,755 the previous season. In major crop activities, the Texas Employment Commission reports that monthly seasonal employment in cotton averaged 16,740; vegetables 15,890; fruit and nuts 5,380; feed and grains 21,485; and livestock 15,845. In the agricultural labor force, only 6.5 percent were under 20 years of age and slightly less than 10 percent were female. Regular hired worker employment in 1974 averaged 57,965 monthly, slightly below 1973.

Farm family workers continued to decline in Texas in 1974 with only 2,000 to 3,000 under the age of 15 working on the farm. In Texas, in 1974, it was estimated there were approximately 137,000 working farm operators performing the majority of the work on their farms. This would include generally all operators with farms having sales of less than $2,500 a year and hiring no labor.

The principal contribution to the economic growth in the State continues to come from non-agricultural industry, and indications are that the trend will continue. The following chart indicates a continuation of the trend of increasing industrial employment matched by decreasing agricultural employment with reference to the total labor force.

TEXAS LABOR FORCE TRENDS
(annual averages)

	1960	1970	1972	1973	1974	Change 1970-74
Civil Labor Force	3,518,500	4,576,000	4,879,000	4,952,000	5,078,700	+11.0
Unemployed	203,100	202,000	220,000	193,000	212,500	
%Unemployed	5.8	4.4	4.5	3.9	4.0	
Total Employment[1]	3,315,400	4,374,000	4,659,000	4,759,000	4,866,200	+11.3
Nonagri, wage and salary employment	2,531,700	3,636,300	3,890,200	4,151,000	4,333,600	+19.2
Agriculture Employment	367,300	286,000	281,300	278,000	273,100	-4.5

1/Includes resident wage and salary workers, self-employed, unpaid family workers and domestics in private households, agricultural workers, and workers involved in labor-management disputes.

Texas Employment Commission

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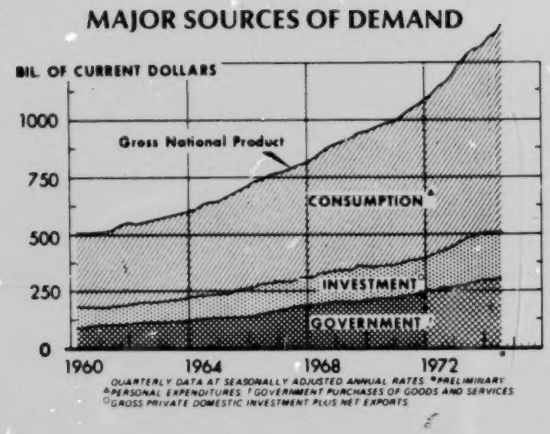
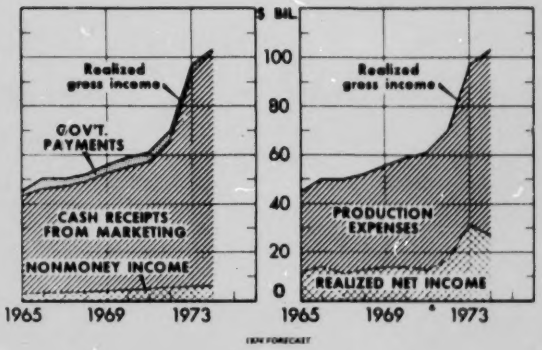
MAJOR SOURCES OF DEMAND

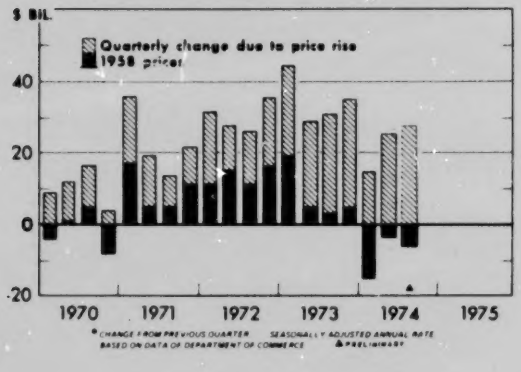


QUARTERLY DATA AT SEASONALLY ADJUSTED ANNUAL RATES. *PRELIMINARY.
△PERSONAL EXPENDITURES. †GOVERNMENT PURCHASES OF GOODS AND SERVICES.
○GROSS PRIVATE DOMESTIC INVESTMENT PLUS NET EXPORTS.

FARM INCOME COMPONENTS

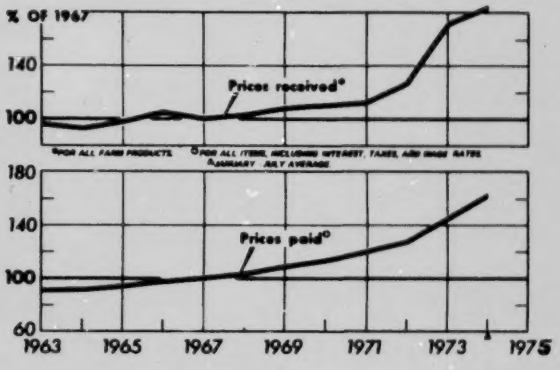


GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT*



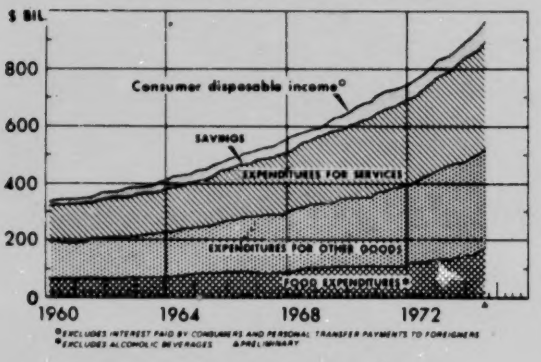
* CHANGE FROM PREVIOUS QUARTER, SEASONALLY ADJUSTED ANNUAL RATE
BASED ON DATA OF DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE. △PRELIMINARY

FARMERS' PRICES, 1963-74



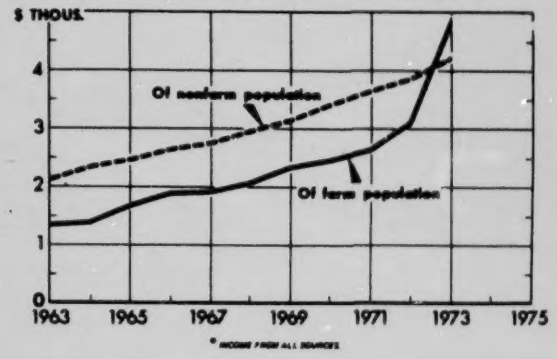
*FOR ALL FARM PRODUCTS. ○FOR ALL ITEMS, INCLUDING INTEREST, TAXES, AND WAGE RATES.
△JANUARY, JULY AVERAGE.

INCOME AND EXPENDITURES



○EXCLUDES INTEREST PAID BY CONSUMERS AND PERSONAL TRANSFER PAYMENTS TO FOREIGNERS
*EXCLUDES ALCOHOLIC BEVERAGES. △PRELIMINARY.

DISPOSABLE PERSONAL INCOME PER CAPITA*



* INCOME FROM ALL SOURCES.

U.S. Department of Agriculture

0020

ALIEN LABOR AND IMMIGRATION

A. ALIEN LABOR:

The economic magnet attracting unskilled labor from the South is unchanged. America is still considered the Land of Opportunity and the streets are paved with gold, even if the glitter hardly blinds us as we emerge from the neighborhood supermarket. An immigrant can still accept unskilled manual labor at half the normal wages in this country, support himself on a higher level than he did at home, and still send back enough cash to help support a large family.

The Mexican alien who is eager to get started, accepts all work with relatively little resentment displayed by American labor. Some enterprises maintain that they can hardly function without the massive use of cheap labor, and since there have always been legal mechanisms for the temporary importation of labor forces, persons frequently prefer the alien laborer, with his minimal demands and lack of political clout. Thousands of agricultural operations, too small to employ machinery, would go under without such help, and household help provided by Mexican nationals has been the salvation of thousands of U.S. families.

To review alien labor and immigration is to study two inseparable, interrelated subjects whose dependency is such that they must be considered together, since both have played an important role in the historic development of our present day migrant farmworker.

The movement of Mexican aliens across their northern border alternately ebbed and flowed until the labor squeeze of World War II when it became a steady northward flow. In 1943 the United States and Mexico agreed to the seasonal importation of Mexican agricultural workers and in 1951 Congress legislated on the problem by requiring farmers in this Nation to make reasonable efforts to attract domestic workers prior to certification by the Secretary of Labor of the need for foreign labor. That was known as the Bracero Program which was designed to control wages, working conditions and transportation of Mexican nationals who came across the border to work in our fields. In 1964 the program lapsed; the next year Congress amended the Immigration and Nationality Act making more strict the certification by the Secretary of Labor of the need for foreign labor and requiring findings on the lack of any adverse effect of the employment of aliens on the wages and working conditions of workers in this country. The phase-out of the Bracero Program with Mexico ended in 1968, but British West Indians and Canadians continued to enter the United States for temporary farm work as illustrated in Table I. To date, the position taken by most Americans on resuming some version of the Bracero Program has been firmly negative. Such a treaty has been vigorously opposed by labor organizations and Mexico has been informed that, with illegal immigration surging and unemployment rising towards levels not seen since the Thirties, it is not likely that such a program be renewed. Until there is an understanding that the in or out flow of immigrants is a function of economics and international agreements, the issue cannot be easily resolved or dispassionately discussed.

Table I

Foreign Workers Admitted for Temporary Employment in U.S. Agriculture
By Year and Nationality

Year	Total	Mexican	B.W.I.'s	Canadians
1951	203,640	192,000	9,040	2,600
1957	452,205	436,049	8,171	7,300
1963	209,218	186,865	12,930	8,500
1965	25,871	20,284	10,917	4,670
1967	23,603	6,125	13,578	3,900
1969	15,830	0	13,530	2,300
1970	17,474	0	15,470	2,004
1971	13,684	0	12,143	1,541
1972	12,526	0	11,419	1,107

Farm Labor Department, U.S. Department of Labor

The use of foreign contract workers has remained relatively steady at about 40,000 plus man-months per year (see Table II) and the proportion of B.W.I.'s to Canadians remains quite constant in numbers as well as in the amount of work performed. Looking toward the future needs for alien labor, it can be expected that there will always be recruiting and contracting of field hands and it is hoped that this orderly and legal system of labor procurement may eventually help combat the rising tide of illegal entrants.

Table II

Estimated Man-Months of Employment of Foreign Contract Workers
Thousands of man-months

Year	Total	Mexicans	B.W.I.'s	Canadians
1965	103.6	26.5	72.0	5.1
1967	57.7	7.1	46.7	3.8
1969	44.0	.0	42.2	1.8
1970	48.4	.0	42.6	5.8
1971	38.4	.0	35.3	3.1
1972	42.5	.0	38.5	4.0

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B. IMMIGRATION:

Immigration is the device used by an alien to gain entrance to another country and this entry may be either temporary or permanent. Of most interest to us, and having a direct effect on our Texas migrant farmworkers, is that section of the 1965 immigration law which specified that the Secretary of Labor must "certify" all permanent visa applications before the Consular Service can issue this visa. This requirement tends to reduce, and even prevent, new visas being granted to laborers who are in job competition with our unskilled farmworkers since the Secretary must certify that: 1) there are not sufficient workers available for the work who are "able, willing and qualified", and 2) that the employment of such aliens will not "adversely affect" the wages or working conditions of U.S. workers similarly employed. All occupations that the Department of Labor has for consideration are divided into three principal "schedules" or occupational groups and are categorized as follows:

> Schedule A- Professional fields in short supply in the U.S. and which are certified in advance (physicians, engineers, chemists, etc.). No job offer or individual review by the Department of Labor is required.
>
> Schedule B- Low skilled occupations where a U.S. labor supply exists (farmworkers, busboys, cook's helpers, janitors, etc.). It is extremely rare that applicants are issued a certification.
>
> Schedule C- Professionals not in Schedule A and semi-professional and skilled which are generally in short supply (chefs, practical nurses, arc welders, machinists, draftsmen, etc.). No job offer is required but the Department of Labor will review each individual case before granting certification.

Every prospective immigrant has to fall into one of these categories and to obtain a visa must obtain three official approvals; the Department of State (U.S. Consular Service), the Department of Justice (I&NS), and the Department of Labor (Regional Office of Certification). If certification is obtained, the application is sent back to the consular office of origin where final processing may take from six months to a year.

Natives of independent countries of the Western Hemisphere are subject to an annual limitation of 120,000 immigrant visas which are issued on a first-come, first-served basis. Immediate relatives who are the spouses and unmarried minor children of U.S. citizens and the parents of adult U.S. citizens are not subject to these numerical limitations if they are the beneficiaries of approved visa petitions. The following Table reveals that the total Western Hemisphere immigration has continued to gain steadily since 1969 despite the fixed annual quota.

Table III

Immigrants Admitted from the Western Hemisphere, 1965-74

Year Ending June 30	Total	Canada	Mexico	Central America	Caribbean	South America
1965	157,264	38,327	37,969	12,423	37,583	30,962
1967	156,312	23,442	42,371	8,709	65,273	16,517
1969	156,220	18,582	44,623	9,692	59,395	23,928
1971	160,733	13,128	50,103	8,626	68,176	20,700
1972	163,734	10,776	64,040	8,125	61,434	19,359
1973	173,123	8,951	70,141	8,803	64,893	20,335
1974	169,151	7,654	71,586	8,664	58,940	22,307

Referring to the following chart of percentage trends and looking at the three principal areas that produce the most immigrants, it is interesting to note the shift in the percentage of total and the overall increase in share-of-total. The increases in the number of immigrants from Mexico and the Caribbean receiving permanent visas are mostly in the categories of joining family members or live-in domestic servants. The Secretary of Labor can certify these latter applicants without fear of violating the "able and willing" requirement of the law as it seems that there are not sufficient local citizen workers "willing" to take house hold work so alien workers can be legally admitted to fill these jobs.

Percentage Trends of Principal Western Hemisphere Immigrating Areas

Year	Canada	Mexico	Carribean	% of Total
1964	27%	23%	21%	71%
1966	19%	29%	28%	76%
1969	12%	29%	38%	79%
1970	9%	30%	40%	79%
1971	8%	31%	42%	81%
1972	6%	39%	37%	82%
1973	5%	40%	38%	83%
1974	5%	42%	35%	82%

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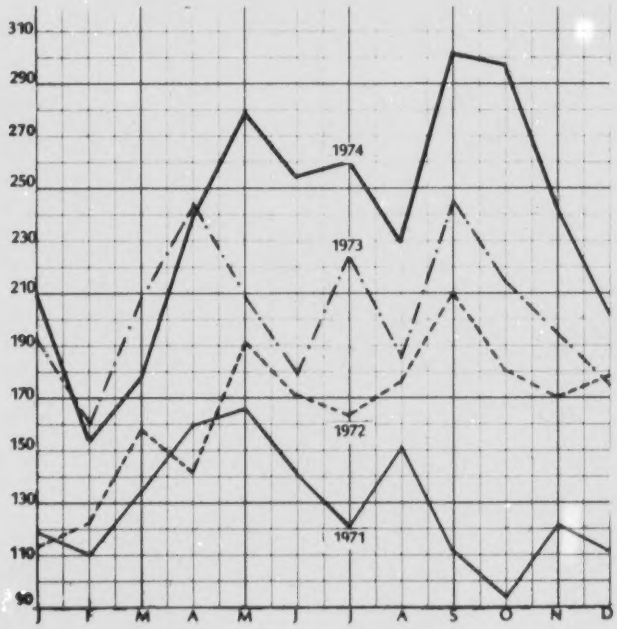
Each year some 370-400,000 legal immigrants from around the world enter the United States and it is interesting to classify them into occupational groups as shown in the following Table. Percentagewise, no drastic difference has occurred in the occupational make up of new immigrants from year to year.

Occupational Group:	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	Ave.
Professional, Technical and kindred	10%	12%	13%	13%	10%	9%	12%
Housewives, children with no occupation	56	58	59	59	61	61.8	58
All others	34	30	28	28	30	29.2	30

It comes as no surprise that the Texas Employment Commission's participation in processing alien applications for legal entry into the United States continues to increase. As can be seen on the following graph, the yearly totals show an increase of applications being routed each year through the complex process that leads eventually to approval or rejection.

Alien Applications Processed by T.E.C.



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C. COMMUTERS:

The aliens referred to as "commuters" are those aliens who have been lawfully accorded the privilege of residing permanently in the United States but who choose to reside in Mexico and commute to their place of employment in the United States. The first step in attaining commuter status is to achieve lawful admission to the U.S. as an immigrant. Like all immigrants, the commuter must apply for an immigrant visa and must meet all of the requirements of the Immigration and Nationality Act. He must obtain a labor certification to show that there is a shortage of workers in the United States in his particular occupation and that this entry will not adversely affect wages and working conditions of U.S. residents. Upon admission, his entry as an immigrant is recorded and in due course he receives an alien registration receipt card, Form I-151, known as a green card (referring to the color of the original I-151 cards). This alien registration receipt card certifies his admission to the United States as an immigrant and under current regulations, it can be presented as an entry document following temporary absences from the United States of less than one year.

The U.S. Court of Appeals in 1973, held that farmworkers could legally enter the United States on a day-to-day basis but could not commute on a seasonal basis. This ruling was changed on November 25, 1974 when a U.S. Supreme Court majority announced that both classes of commuters are entitled to enter the country, provided they have registration cards issued by the Immigration Service. The five-to-four decision which affirmed the unrestricted right of Mexican commuters to work in the United States stirred new fears among Mexican American citizens already hard hit by rising unemployment in border areas. The Court found that, "Alien commuters are immigrants who are lawfully admitted for permanent residence, and are returning from a temporary visit abroad when they enter the United States, and this special immigrant classification is applicable to both daily and seasonal commuters." In reality this is merely an affirmation of an unregulated situation that has received tacit, though unofficial, approval for more than twenty years.

An alien is entitled to commuter status only if he has a permanent and stable job in this country. If he does not have such a job, commuter status is not acquired. If, after he has acquired commuter status, he is out of employment in the United States for more than six months, he is deemed to have abandoned his commuter status. However, the commuter status will not be lost if the employment in the United States has been interrupted by uncontrollable circumstances such as serious illness, pregnancy, or disabling injury.

Several differences between a commuter and other permanent resident immigrants exist, however. A commuter is not actually required to reside within the country nor will he loose his immigration classification if unemployed for six months, as mentioned previously; he may not serve as a strikebreaker; and he cannot count the time he lives outside the United States toward the five years needed to be eligible for citizenship. In reality these differences are of little consequence since the unemployed restriction is seldom enforced; the anti-strikebreaker rule is often circumvented and hence, essentially meaningless; and many green carders have no interest in becoming American citizens.

The Immigration and Naturalization Service does not attempt to maintain accurate

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statistics on the number of aliens who commute to work in the United States since the number varies as workers give up their jobs in the U.S. or as new immigrants are admitted with commuter status; however, from time to time a sample count is taken with the last such sampling taken in 1970. This year, the government estimated that 50,000 workers commuted daily from Mexico and that more than 10,000 came across daily from Canada. The U.S. Commission on Civil Rights estimates that if Mexican commuters were cut off, these workers would lose $50 million annually. The State Department estimates there are 250,000 family members dependent on income earned by commuters and that commuters account for 25% to 30% of the income earned by the total labor force in some Mexican border communities.

Each year, a large number of agricultural workers enter the United States and remain for several months following the crops to various parts of the country. During the winter months these workers go back to Mexico; some take up residence near the border and continue to commute to work in the United States again until the spring planting begins. Included in this group are some family members who have status as lawful permanent residents. These migrant workers are not strictly commuters since they actually remain in the U.S. several months out of each year without returning to their homes in Mexico, hence they are considered as "seasonal" commuters by those who oppose the commuter program.

The majority of the green carders are concentrated in large, metropolitan cities like Detroit and Chicago and in those areas they are sometimes union members and are well integrated into the regular work force. Along the Mexican border the situation is quite different. There is considerable organized opposition to commuters due, in large part, to the fact that commuters perpetuate the depressed border economy and that the residents on the U.S. side who are in job competition with them are too often without work. The commuter residing in Mexico has a much lower cost of living than his co-worker resident of the United States. The opponents of the commuter program point to this fact and argue that the commuter, because of this, has little incentive to seek higher wages or better working conditions.

D. ILLEGAL ENTRANTS:

The unlawful crossing of the border by unauthorized aliens in search of employment and services is the basic catalyst that directly, or indirectly, produces a substantial number of our border ills. These same ills have now spread cancer-like to the heartland of our country. On November 11, 1974, in testimony before the Subcommittee on Employment and Unemployment of the Texas House of Representatives' Committee on Labor, the Executive Director of the Good Neighbor Commission stated that Texas, the Southwest and the nation as a whole must confront this overwhelming deluge of illegal entrants and find a solution to it before the damage to our social and economic structure becomes irreparable. As each year passes, the matter of persons illegally entering the United States becomes increasingly more important and a remedy for the problem becomes increasingly more urgent.

In order to alert the reader to the destructive possibilities that lie ahead if this domestic, as well as international situation is allowed to go unattended and unsolved, a brief background and a few statistics will help to put this whole problem in its true perspective. The great disparity in the standards of living between the two countries, the population crunch in Mexican border cities, unbelievably high unemployment,

memories of earnings during the Bracero days and just plain economic desperation are some of the motivating stimuli that prompt the Mexican nationals to cross the border in increasing numbers year after year in search of temporary relief from their economic woes. Whether this move is legal or not is of secondary importance to the illegal alien who is impelled by his own need; after all, he has nothing to lose if caught except to be sent back across the border.

It might be well to remember that a mere quarter of a century ago the Mexican border towns, the so called "gateway cities", were small, of little economic or commercial consequence and with a total population from Tijuana to Matamoros of barely a half million persons. Not so today, now there are nearly four million people clustered tightly against the northern boundary of Mexico. So, across the border they come and what for many years was a mere trickle of foreigners sneaking into the U.S. has now become a vertible flood which shows no signs of cresting, much less subsiding.

In 1965, the year after the Bracero program for government controlled contract labor from Mexico was terminated, the number of illegal Mexicans apprehended and returned to their homeland by the Immigration and Naturalization Service was a modest 50,000. Five years later that number had increased five fold to 250,000. Immigration Service officers of the Border Patrol and the Investigations Division located a total of 788,000 deportable aliens during 1974, an increase of 132,000 over fiscal year 1973. Of the total number of deportable aliens located, 91 percent (710,000) were Mexican nationals. The following figures, dating from the last year of the Bracero Program in 1964, show with alarming clarity the trend in numerical increases of illegal entrants from Mexico.

Deportable Mexican Aliens Located
and Percent of Total

1964 —	42,000	50%	1971 —	348,000	83%
1966 —	92,000	65%	1972 —	430,000	85%
1968 —	151,700	71%	1973 —	577,000	88%
1970 —	277,000	80%	1974 —	710,000	91%

If the assumption that "for every illegal Mexican deported another three get by" is factual, this brings us to the unbelievable conclusion that there is the possibility that two and a quarter million got by during a single year period. These figures, along with the I&NS consequent projections are what bring the Department of Justice to estimate that there are upwards of FIVE million illegal Mexicans now residing and working in the United States.

The lack of funds and staff is not the only factor that complicates the working efficiency of the I&NS since we must consider the kind and calibre of illegal entrants we are now dealing with. Immediately after the Bracero program the illegals were essentially of the "campesino" type, the unskilled laborer seeking farm work or other menial tasks just as long as it was work. This has all changed now since the unskilled, agriculture oriented illegal entrant makes up only about 20% of the illegal workers while an estimated 60% of the alien total now has semi-permanent jobs, that is to say, jobs that are subject to abrupt termination whenever they are identified by the authorities as illegals.

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A breakdown of the apprenhension records indicates that the illegal aliens are no longer just field hands and dishwashers, they are into everything. The semi-skilled are moving into construction and heavy industry where there is little chance for detection as their earnings, which are well above average, obviate the need for seeking welfare or other services which could reveal their status. Many skilled and professional people, impatient with the time consuming legal process of immigration and facing the possibility that they might be refused entry, are taking the illegal route. In spite of the fact that they were doing well in their own country in relation to their environment, they know they can do better over here. This group virtually escapes detection as they pay their taxes and social security and thus create no air of suspicion. These are also the illegals who are most prone to "normalize" their immigration status through marriage or other means. In reality we are undergoing a second enormous and uncontrolled wave of illegal immigration from Mexico and decisive action is imperative. The only route to take is legislative action by the federal government to close the flood gates by drying up the source of job opportunities which has always been the magnetic pull drawing the alien to this country.

The arithmetic of illegal immigration illustrates the scope and magnitude of the problem. To the casual observer, the revelation that America is now the unwilling host to an estimated five to eight million illegal aliens usually comes as a surprise. The problem to some seems to have crept up without warning, a sudden lightning invasion of Mexican nationals flocking across the U.S. -Mexican border in the last few months. This assumption is completely erroneous since large numbers of illegals have been pouring through with increasing intensity since the old Bracero program was halted in 1964.

The Mexican border is 1,945 miles long, and there are about 1,100 border patrolmen guarding it. Once the aliens get past the border and find work, the force of I&NS investigators is much thinner. The Border Patrol, which accounts for most of the apprehensions of illegals, has grown in numbers by less than 20 percent in the last 14 years, while their apprehensions have increased by 2,000 percent. Since most of the U.S. -Mexican border is open land, the U.S. has erected fences that in some places are 12 feet high and topped with concertina barbed wire. The fences are virtually useless since smugglers cut holes in the wire with clippers and sometimes drive cars or trucks through. An electrified fence might be a more effective deterrent, according to some critics, but a sensitive Mexican government complains even about the barbed wire, stressing that Mexico is a friendly neighbor.

Work Load of the BORDER PATROL
(figures in thousands)

	1960	1965	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974
Conveyances Examined	1,659	1,172	1,792	2,024	2,473	2,666	2,905
Persons Questioned	6,190	5,285	6,805	7,664	9,024	9,507	10,202
Narcotics Seizures	$52	$393	$3,865	$5,379	$11,708	$23,464	$45,056

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Massive infusions of money and equipment to double or triple the I&NS force of border patrolmen or investigators is not the total solution to the problem, but adequate personnel is needed to halt the flow and scoop up those who get across. If the flow is not halted, the adverse impact on the American economy will continue to worsen. It is estimated that the millions of illegals here are responsible for a $10 billion wage loss to American workers. They hold millions of jobs at a time of rising unemployment. They mail out billions of dollars in often untaxed money to their homelands, aggravating our country's balance of payments, and they make use of a wide variety of public services from schools to medical care. Aliens come to the United States for one reason–jobs. Cut off the better jobs and higher salaries and consequently the problem is solved. It certainly sounds simple, but it definitely is not.

The situation is drastic but it will deteriorate even more unless corrective steps are taken promptly. Worsening economic conditions and rising population around the world will spur many more to enter the United States illegally. To cite only Mexico, projections show that its 1970 work force of 16 million persons is expected to grow to 28 million in 1985 and 40 million in 1995. The number of illegal aliens in the U.S. has been rapidly increasing each year and continues to do so. The following statistics from the annual report of the Immigration and Naturalization Service clearly indicate the magnitude of this problem from a national perspective.

Table IV

ILLEGAL ALIENS LOCATED BY THE BORDER PATROL
Selected Years Ending June 30

	1960	1965	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974
Deportable Aliens Located	28,966	52,422	231,116	302,517	373,896	503,936	640,913
Mexican Aliens	22,687	44,161	219,254	290,152	355,099	480,588	616,630
Canadian Aliens	4,645	5,795	7,786	7,512	8,245	8,669	7,392
All Others	1,634	2,466	4,076	4,853	6,151	8,866	10,755
Smugglers of Aliens Located	330	525	3,298	3,814	4,565	6,355	8,074
Aliens Previously Expelled	9,374	13,955	67,440	90,402	115,758	152,441	182,351

A possible remedy for this long standing problem may be contained in a bill (HB-982) which was introduced by Representative Peter Rodino in 1973. The key to the bill is the phrase "knowingly employ." Under current law, no employer has any legal reason to care whether or not his employees are American citizens, legal or illegal aliens. HB-982 would require an employer to ask each prospective employee if he is an American citizen. If he says, yes, and shows some proof of citizenship, then that is all that is necessary. But if his answer is no, then he must show some documentation that he is here under legal conditions, otherwise, there is no job for him.

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Under the proposed bill, if an employer is caught violating the law for the first time, he receives a warning from the U.S. Attorney General. For a second offense, he may be assessed as much as $500 for each alien involved. The third time he is caught, he is guilty of a misdemeanor and upon conviction can be punished by a fine of $1,000 and/or by imprisonment not exceeding one year.

Opposition to a prohibition against "knowingly employing" an alien is difficult to understand since employers would only need some proof of legal residency for hiring -- if the job seeker made a false statement, the employer would not be blamed. Many Mexican American groups and organizations claim the measure would discriminate against them, since they and other racial or ethnic groups would share the same burden of proof of citizenship. By placing new responsibilities upon all employers, the lure of easily-obtained jobs would in large part vanish. Without a law, an alien removed from the country is often back within a week, and sometimes back on the same job. Furthermore, the bill has been carefully drafted in an effort to assure conscientious employers that they will not be subject to penalties if they made a bona fide inquiry about the prospective employee's status.

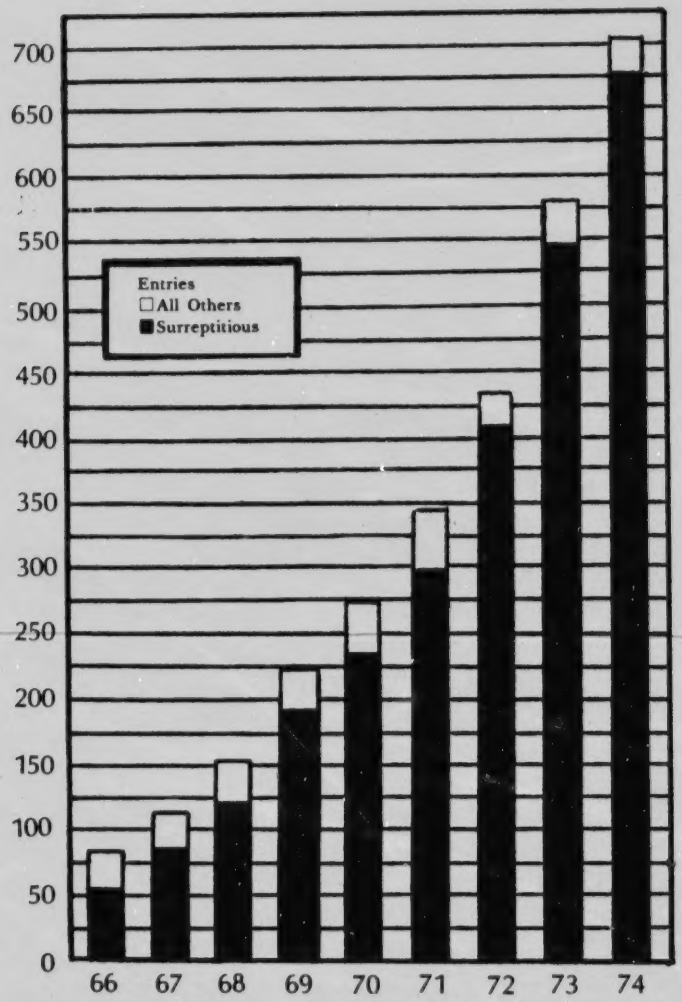
It is doubtful if any one law could solve the problem completely and still be equitable, but a start must be made. The need for legislation is especially obvious during this period of growing unemployment; jobs now taken by aliens could be filled by unemployed citizens or persons who have complied with immigration laws and regulations.

Border vigilance along with apprehension and deportation of illegal aliens is a very expensive endeavor and seemingly unproductive, as the problem grows larger even while a solution is being sought. Included in the I&NS budget are many thousands of dollars for detention and deportation, most of which is spent operating detention centers in Los Fresnos near Port Isabel, Texas; El Centro, California; and El Paso, Texas.

The purpose of these facilities is to provide a place of detention for an alien who has been taken into custody pending his release under supervised deportation, or pending his release on bond or his own recognizance, or pending the conclusion of his deportation case. Detention in an I&NS facility is not for the purpose of punishment, but is to insure the alien's availability for deportation proceedings. The I&NS is not only responsible for the secure detention of the alien, but also for his personal welfare. Food, housing, emergency medical and dental care, clothing if required, and reasonable recreation facilities are provided for the detainees. In addition to their responsibility for the care and custody of these detained aliens, personnel at the Centers must also attend to administrative details and such as maintaining records on each individual brought to the facility; arrange for deportation hearings and travel documents, when necessary; and make travel arrangements for the departure of these detainees.

Most of the detainees are of Mexican nationality and are returned to Mexico by bus. There are various designated points of departure along the border, and transportation to these points is provided under supervision of I&NS Detention Officers. In returning an alien to Mexico, consideration is given to his place of residence in order that he may return to his home via the most direct route.

DEPORTABLE MEXICAN ALIENS
FOUND IN THE UNITED STATES
1966-1974
(figures in **thousands**)



Under new proposed regulations published in the Federal Register on June 24, 1974, when an alien applies for a social security number he will be asked to show the documents which permit his stay in the United States. If, after a reasonable period of time, an alien fails to produce appropriate I&NS documents or expired documents that establish his alien status, the Social Security Administration will notify the Immigration and Naturalization Service. The applicant will be advised at the time he applies for a social security number that such notice will be given.

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CURRENT DEVELOPMENTS

During the past several years, the intent of the Good Neighbor Commission in publishing its Annual Texas Migrant Labor Report has been to be as informative as possible on current matters that pertain to the Texas migrant farmworker and his family. Complying with this intent, we will present in this section up-to-date ideas, events and programs in areas of specific concern to migrants. As in recent years, the important areas we have chosen for discussion in 1974 are education, housing, health and employment.

A. EDUCATION:

Many schools each year face the responsibility and the challenge of teaching children whose parents "move with the crops." Some of these schools are in "home base" areas to which the family returns for a few months after the year's harvests are complete. Some are "on the trek", where the family stops to work for a time where hand labor is needed in planting, caring for or harvesting one or another of many agricultural crops. The work stop over may be in the spring, before the local school year ends, or in the fall after a new school year has started, or the migrant families may be working in a community during the summer months when regular school classes are not in session. In the latter case, special school programs may be provided for the migrant children, usually with federal financial support. Undoubtedly, the most challenging problem faced by a local school system is to provide for the children who come and go during the regular school year.

Migrant children share with other disadvantaged children poverty, language and culture differences, low self-esteem, confused attitudes about the value of their own culture, and wisdom beyond their age concerning poor people in American society. These factors, combined with poor nutrition and untreated medical and dental problems, serve as interfering variables in the child's ability to achieve academically. The main feature, however, that sets the migrant child apart from other disadvantaged children and makes his education so difficult is his mobility.

There are many kinds of migrant children, but in this section we will treat specifically with the children served by the Elementary and Secondary Education Act's Migrant Amendment of 1966, which states: "A migratory child of a migratory agricultural worker is a child who has moved with his family from one school district to another during the past year in order that a parent or other members of his immediate family may secure employment in agriculture or in related food programs". Such criteria as late entry and achievement tests are meaningless unless the student meets the above definition.

The Texas Child Migrant Program:

The Texas Child Migrant Program, which is administered by the Texas Education Agency, has as its basic goal the development of a comprehensive and total educational program that will help develop the migrant children's highest potential and prepare them to take their place in the mainstream of the educational program. Each individual

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has the potential for a useful contribution to society and the right to a meaningful educational program that will make provision for his academic, social, physical, and psychological development. Much of the child's success in such a broad and comprehensive program is dependent on the attitudes of parents, educators, and the community. As a result of his mobility and his difficulties in the use of English as a second language or due to his problem with English because of his dialect, the migrant child has need for special help.

The present migrant child program is a direct outgrowth of Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965 which was specifically designed to help educationally deprived children and to provide for federal participation and funding of state operated educational programs. The T.C.M.P., which received a funding total of $12,859,088 in 1974, had 59,417 students participate in migrant and summer migrant programs operated in 177 school districts. The following tables show the dramatic upsurge that took place after the Act was amended in 1966 by P.L. 89-750 to include the children of migratory agricultural workers.

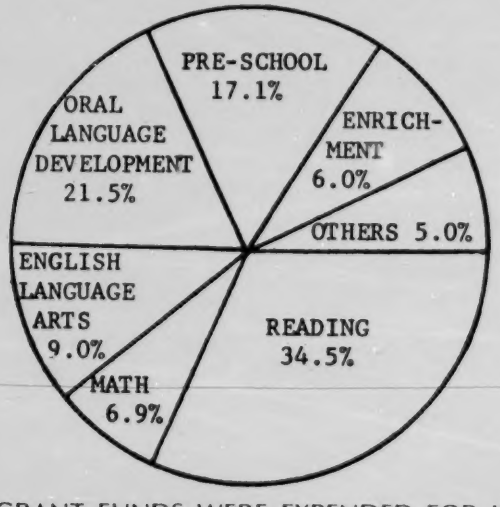
STUDENTS PARTICIPATING

1964	3,668
1965	6,500
1966	20,083
1967	16,769
1968	18,843
1969	31,779
1970	37,048
1071	43,632
1972	48,848
1973	54,661
1974	55,424

DISTRICTS PARTICIPATING

1964	5
1965	10
1966	40
1967	40
1968	45
1969	64
1970	73
1971	99
1972	123
1973	151
1974	177

THE MIGRANT DOLLAR
INSTRUCTION

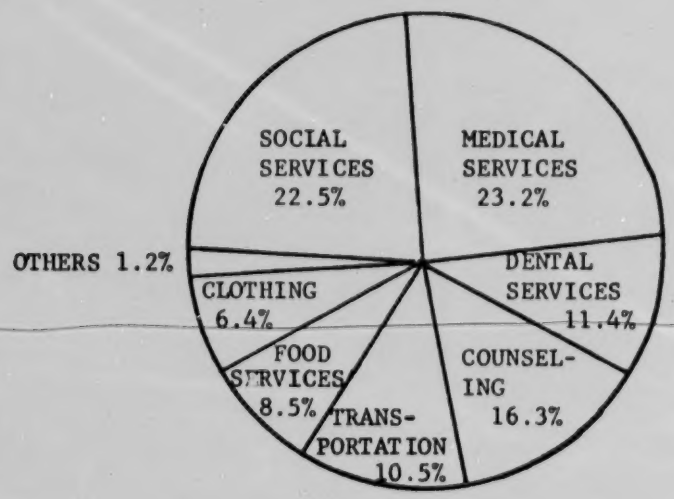


75.7% OF MIGRANT FUNDS WERE EXPENDED FOR INSTRUCTION

As illustrated on the previous page, there were eleven different instructional areas funded through ESEA, Title I Migrant, in 1974 with the most emphasis being placed on reading, oral language development, enrichment experiences, English language arts, and mathematics. Of the total funds encumbered, 75.7 percent were expended for instructional activities.

Pupil services are provided by ESEA, Title I Migrant funds, in support of the regular instructional program. Funds for food services are in the following categories: National School Lunch Programs, Special Milk Programs, and others. Social and medical services accounted for the largest expenditures of migrant funds for pupil services, slightly more than 20 percent each. The greatest gain from the percentages of 1973 was in guidance and counseling services, which increased from 13.7 percent to 16.3 percent. The following figure illustrates graphically the spending of the migrant dollars for services.

THE MIGRANT DOLLAR
SERVICES



14.5% OF MIGRANT FUNDS WERE EXPENDED FOR SERVICES

The basic goal of the program is to offer the migrant child a comprehensive and total educational experience that will help him realize his full potential and thus prepare him for entering the mainstream of the state's educational process. There are two different thrusts used to accomplish this goal: the special seven month program and the regular program. In addition, all school districts that participate in the Texas Child Migrant Program must provide supplementary educational services to a number of migrant children that is commensurate with the number upon which the maximum grant is based. The following table indicates that although these programs served children from pre-kinder through high school, the bulk of the student load is at the elementary level--kinder through grade six.

PARTICIPATION BY GRADE LEVEL

GRADE LEVEL	NUMBER OF STUDENTS	PERCENT OF TOTAL NUMBER OF STUDENTS
Pre-Kindergarten	2,133	3.8%
Kindergarten	3,951	7.1
1	5,980	10.8
2	5,638	10.2
3	5,444	9.8
4	5,415	9.8
5	5,057	9.1
6	4,577	8.3
7	4,410	8.0
8	3,600	6.5
9	2,666	4.8
10	1,761	3.2
11	1,299	2.3
12	1,068	1.9
Ungraded	1,990	3.6
Special Education	435	.8
Total	55,424	100.0

The Seven Month School Program:

During the 1973-74 school year, 16 school districts in the Lower Rio Grande Valley and other areas of South Texas operated a Seven Month Program. This type of program is specially designed to compensate for the inability of these migrant children to attend school the entire ten-month term. Because of the migration patterns of their families these children return to their home base area in the latter part of October and leave in the latter part of April. This type of school operates for a minimum of one hundred and thirty-five (135) instructional days, and the school day is extended so that the children are exposed to the same number of instructional hours as are children in the regular program.

A special teacher allocation formula is used to assure that these classrooms do not become overcrowded during peak enrollment periods. This formula allocates teachers on the three peak reporting periods, rather than the usual six reporting periods. This assures that the maximum number of teachers are available when the greatest number of children are in school. Migrant children in the program may be grouped in separate classrooms, but not necessarily on separate school campuses. This program allows all students to begin and end the school year at the same time.

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The Enrichment Program:

The Enrichment Program provides supplementary educational services to migrant children in grades K-12. According to its needs and situation, a school district may operate one or a combination of the following plans:

1) Extra services during the day to provide supplementary instructional activities with a supplementary or resource teacher in a classroom, a circulating supplementary teacher, or teacher aides providing additional services;

2) An extended day program in which migrant children participate in the regular school program and school day activities, but receive additional instruction after school; and

3) Self-contained classrooms which have only migrant pupils in a nongraded structure.

Other objectives of these programs have continued to place special emphasis on parental involvement programs during the 1973-74 school year. Parental cooperation with the school is extremely important to the effectiveness of the educational program in meeting the needs of children. Migrant parents can help support the school in its effort to educate their children and the school must make an effort to work with the parent in informing them of the importance of an education. Finding better ways and means to educate these children needs to become a challenge to the parents just as it is to the school personnel, this is why a major aim of migrant education is to include the parents of migrant students in the planning, implementation, and evaluation of school programs. Most school programs involve the parents in "parent's activities" while a few are included on local education agency advisory boards. Others involve parents as recruiters, volunteers, aids, kitchen help and field assistants. Parental participation in the education process, from planning to performance has proved its worth in all other areas, so why should it not do likewise in the area of migrant education?

The Preschool Program:

The migrant Preschool Program has the following objectives:

1) To establish an educational environment in which four-year old migrant children are provided opportunities to develop intellectually, socially, physically, and emotionally;

2) To provide opportunities for parents of these children to participate more effectively in the school community and to assume more effective responsibility for enhancing the educational development of their children: and

3) To increase the effectiveness of instructional personnel who work with these children through a parental activities program which will deepen understanding of the special needs and characteristics of the migrant family.

The Summer School Program:

A total of 12,249 students in 44 school districts participated in the 1974 summer migrant program, an increase of 1,644 when compared to the 1973 figure. More than 96 percent of the participants were Spanish-surnamed and a total of $1,828,698 in ESEA, Title I Migrant funds was expended for the summer programs. The per pupil cost of the summer school operation was $149. Students participated in programs offering a variety of instructional activities, as well as enrichment, physical education and recreation activities. The number of personnel involved in the summer migrant program totaled 1,479 and the pupil-teacher ratio was approximately twenty-two to one.

The Interstate Cooperation Project:

In 1966, the Texas Education Agency entered into an Interstate Cooperation Project to join with other states in the search for solutions to the problems of education of migrant children. The Project operates for ten weeks during the summer when experienced and bilingual teachers from Texas work with the education department staff of the consumer states to help provide schooling continuity in the work areas.

Texas teachers chosen to participate in this program are selected from school districts participating in the Texas Child Migrant Program. They must have experience in teaching migratory children and must express an interest in the project in order to be considered. The objectives of the Texas Migrant Interstate Cooperation Project are:

1) To have available in the participating states teachers with experience in the teaching of Texas migrant children.

2) To share information necessary to the understanding of the problems of teaching Texas migrant children.

3) To develop a better system of record transfer among migrant schools.

4) To improve teaching techniques used in the instruction of migrant children.

5) To encourage school participation of Texas migrants when they are in other states.

6) To promote, especially among participating Texas teachers, a realization of the problems faced by school age migrant children during the migrant cycle.

Upon completion of the program, a reporting conference is held in Austin for the purpose of summarizing the program activities. Reports are given by the participants on specific phases of the program and valuable ideas are exchanged during a round-table discussion. Later during the year, many of the participants serve as consultants for local and area workshops and seminars. It should be noted that the Interstate Cooperation Project will continue to offer a sequential educational program to migrant children, while away from their home base area.

In 1974, the project involved 20 migrant stream states which included:

California	Idaho	Iowa	Minnesota	New York	Utah	Wisconsin
Colorado	Illinois	Kansas	Nebraska	Ohio	Virginia	Wyoming
Florida	Indiana	Michigan	New Mexico	Washington		

In October 1974, the Texas Education Agency held its Twelfth Annual Workshop at McAllen and its theme was "Migrant Education: A Moving Experience". The extensive workshop included a series of major addresses by noted educators and sectional meetings on most instructional and service areas conducted by specialists in the field of education. Approximately 3,000 participants representing the 177 project schools as well as numerous out of state educators and other guests, were enrolled in the three-day conference.

Texas Child Migrant Program

MIGRANT EDUCATION: A Moving Experience

TWELFTH ANNUAL WORKSHOP
OCTOBER 10–12, 1974
McALLEN, TEXAS
TEXAS EDUCATION AGENCY
AUSTIN, TEXAS

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The Uniform Migrant Transfer Record System:

One of the contributions thus far to migrant education is the Migrant Data Bank in Little Rock, Arkansas. An estimated 900,000 children of migrant and seasonal farmworkers are recorded in this computer system which is designed to allow educational and medical records to keep up with the youngsters. This figure could easily reach a million and a quarter within the next three years since the system is now required to include all "five year migrant children". This means that any child that has migrated and been recorded on the computer must be carried as eligible for migrant education programs for five years. It is conceivable that a school age child, under this new disposition, could remain active for ten to fifteen years by joining the migrant stream every five years and thus automatically renewing his eligibility. The migrant student record transfer (MSRT) system is a joint federal and Arkansas Department of Education project utilized by approximately 8,000 school districts in 47 states.

The information is stored in MSRT's computer in Little Rock and through the use of teleprinters linked to the central computer by telephone lines, school districts can receive needed data in a matter of hours. In Texas, there are ten Regional Service Centers that are participating in the computerized network system and these send their information to the Center at Little Rock through five terminal sites located at five of the service centers. The number of regions that each terminal serves is governed by the size of the migrant student population in that area. Below is a list of the Regional Service Centers, the site of their respective sending terminal and the number of terminals at that site.

TEXAS REGIONAL SERVICE CENTERS

SERVICE CENTER	TERMINAL SITE	NO. OF TERMINALS
Region I, Edinburg	Edinburg	8
Region II, Corpus Christi	Corpus Christi	2
Region III, Victoria	Austin	1
Region XII, Waco	Austin	1
Region XIII, Austin	Austin	1
Region XIV, Abilene	Austin	1
Region XV, San Angelo	Austin	1
Region XVII, Lubbock	Lubbock	2
Region XVIII, Midland	Lubbock	1
Region XX, San Antonio	San Antonio	2

The Migrant Data Bank operates with two forms: 1) the Uniform Migrant Student Transfer form, referred to as the "Blue Monster" by many persons in public schools, is circulated to the school secretary, teacher or counselor; and 2) the Medical Transfer form, which is mailed only to the school nurse or doctor. Individualized student records are sent only to authorized educational agencies with an eye toward safeguarding private student data. The uniform record forms do not permit the recording of derogatory information.

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Bilingual Education:

The nation's basic education law, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (P.L. 89-10), was amended in 1967 (P.L. 90-247) to include Title VII, the Bilingual Education Act. This public law contains the following two provisos in its Declaration of Policy:

> "In recognition of the special educational needs of the large numbers of children of limited English-speaking ability, Congress hereby declares it to be the policy of the United States to provide financial assistance to local education agencies to develop and carry out new and imaginative bilingual programs. . ."
>
> "Though the Title VII program affirms the primary importance of English it also recognizes that a child's mother tongue, which is other than English, can have a beneficial effect upon his education and when used as a medium of instruction can help prevent retardation in his school performance.

The Bilingual Education Program was designed to meet the special educational needs of children 3 to 18 years of age who have limited English-speaking ability and who come from environments where the dominant language is other than English. The concern is for children in this target group to profit from increased educational opportunity through the use of their mother tongue as a medium of instruction, and to develop greater competence in English to become proficient in the use of two languages which should result in a more broadly educated citizen.

Bilingual education means the use of two languages, one of which is English, as mediums of instruction in a well organized program which encompasses part or all of the curriculum. A vital aspect of bilingual education is the study of the history and culture associated with the mother tongue. A complete bilingual/bicultural program develops and maintains the children's self-esteem and a legitimate pride in both cultures.

In Texas, bilingual education was developed to meet the individual needs of each child, and is characterized by the following components:

-The basic concepts intitiating the child into the school environment are taught in the language he brings from home.
-Language development is provided in the child's dominant language.
-Language development is provided in the child's second language.
-Subject matter and concepts are taught in the second language of the child.
-Specific attention is given to develop in the child a positive identity with his cultural heritage, and confidence.

Bilingual education means many things to many people and some of the most common misconceptions are: (1) Bilingual education is equated with "English as a Second Language" and the latter not treated as a program component; (2) Bilingual education means teaching Spanish per se; (3) The immediate translation of everything is bilingual education rather than treating each language separately; and (4) Teaching

reading in Spanish to non-Spanish speakers from foreign text books has been a process employed by some.

A number of benefits are inherent in bilingual and bicultural education. It can have a positive effect on curriculum, on teaching materials, methods and techniques, on institutional relationship, and most importantly on attitudes and values. The accruements of bilingual and bicultural education are numerous and the following are but a few.

-Bilingual and bicultural education can help people in the United States to understand better not only those from foreign countries but also those in our society who are culturally different.
-Better intercultural relations can help communities in all fifty states to strengthen their civic and moral fiber.
-An understanding of the diverse conditions under which the peoples of our states live can contribute to deeper understanding of the differences among people; a first step in respecting and valuing such differences.
-This type of education can assist teachers and administrators to develop a clearer understanding of economic power and its influence upon every walk of life.
-Bilingual and bicultural education can provide an opportunity for local schools, colleges, universities, and state Departments of Education to work cooperatively. Such cooperation develops channels of communication that will strengthen education at all levels.
-And most important of all, bilingual and bicultural education can assist students and teachers to develop values for life in a multicultural world. It can help equip those who learn with the knowledge and direction required to make sense of the world in which we live.

In 1974 the Texas Education Agency reported that nearly 120,000 children in Texas schools were enrolled in either federally or state assisted bilingual programs. Out of this number 61,000 youngsters participated in bilingual projects funded under Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act and the total ESEA funding was over $8 million. There were also 18 bilingual projects funded under Title VII of the Emergency School Aid Act with 34,000 children participating. The funding for this statewide ESAA program was $4.9 million. An additional 20-30,000 children were involved in various local bilingual programs.

Formerly, Texas schools required Spanish speakers to speak only English in class, even though they may have known little English. However, the Texas Legislature in May of 1969 passed HB-103 (Truan) which recognized the fact that, "English shall be the basic language of instruction in all schools", but that "the governing board of any school district may determine when instruction may be given bilingually". This nullified the law that prohibited the use of any language other than English as a medium of instruction and cleared the way for unrestricted bilingual education. Later, under SB-121 (Brooks) passed during the 63rd legislative session of 1973, Texas required school districts, with 20 or more children of limited English ability in the same grade level, to operate bilingual programs. During the summer of 1974, by means of teacher training "institutes", the T.E.A. trained 1,650 administrators, teachers, and teacher aides how to implement the new bilingual programs which began in the Fall. At this time Texas can be considered the foremost state in bilingual education in the nation.

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Besides the basic ESEA program mentioned at the beginning of this section and detailed in the following list of projects, there is a second principal source for the promotion of bilingual training at the elementary and secondary levels. The Emergency School Aid Act (P.L. 92-318) of December 1972, under its Title VII, brings another well funded HEW effort to bear on bilingual and special need educational areas on an emergency, get-with-it basis. Whether ESAA is more flexible and easier to work with (as some education authorities claim) than is ESEA is a matter that only time can answer, however the facts are that in its second year ESAA spent 56% as much money and served a like percentage of children as did the sum of ESEA bilingual programs in Texas. Program activities assisted under the ESAA are for the purpose of achieving the following objectives under emergency pressure: a) Meeting the special needs incident to the elimination of minority group segregation and discrimination among students and faculty in elementary and secondary schools; b) Eliminating, reducing or preventing minority group isolation in elementary and secondary schools with substantial proportions of minority group students; and c) Aiding school children in overcoming the educational disadvantages inherent in group isolation.

We in Texas are fortunate that interest and enrollment in Spanish language instruction is not diminishing, rather, it is increasing. Spanish is a part of the Southwest, part of its history, an important part of its present and a necessary part of its future. The following tables of the development growth and of on-going projects, funded by Title VII-ESEA, illustrate better than anything else, the Texas commitment to bilingual education and its continued growth.

DEVELOPMENT GROWTH OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION IN TEXAS
1970-1974

	Projects	Expenditure	Enrollment
1970/71	35	$5,182,000	24,286
1971/72	40	6,187,000	35,014
1972/73	39	5,728,000	42,614
1973/74	49	8,032,283	61,143

TEXAS BILINGUAL EDUCATION PROJECTS
1973/74

Project District	Year of Project	Funding Authorized	Children Participating
Abernathy	Sixth	$124,654	590
Abilene	Fourth	152,062	912
Alice	Fifth	164,135	906
Austin	First	400,000	2,314
Austin, Reg. 13	Sixth	343,571	1,822

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Project District	Year of Project	Funding Authorized	Children Participating
Bishop	Third	$ 83,500	1,641
Brownsville	Fourth	219,287	1,594
Colorado City	Fifth	74,500	349
Corpus Christi	Fifth	105,400	870
Cotulla	First	73,000	591
Crystal City	Fourth	242,012	1,203
Dallas	Fourth	396,500	1,110
Del Rio	Sixth	170,000	2,875
Eagle Pass	Third	110,000	1,115
Edcouch-Elsa	First	144,646	210
Edinburg	Fifth	152,000	1,802
El Paso	Fourth	149,150	1,140
Elgin	First	123,395	325
Fort Worth	Sixth	270,991	190
Galveston	Fifth	90,300	300
Hereford	First	70,498	399
Kingsville	Fifth	88,648	574
La Joya	Sixth	87,753	1,812
Laredo	Sixth	107,000	1,050
Lubbock	Sixth	139,989	1,050
McAllen	Sixth	163,896	1,100
Mercedes	First	185,000	3,627
Mission	First	215,000	941
Orange Grove	Fifth	114,600	363

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Project District	Year of Project	Funding Authorized	Children Participating
Pharr	Fourth	$241,953	3,113
Port Isabel	Fifth	157,000	713
Rio Grande City	Third	120,000	1,055
Robstown	Third	145,000	600
San Angelo	Sixth	135,000	1,002
San Antonio (Alamo)	Fifth	115,725	289
San Antonio (Edgewood)	Sixth	386,185	1,600
San Antonio (S.A. ISD)	Sixth	455,000	8,195
San Antonio (South S.A.)	Fifth	150,000	1,440
San Antonio (South Side)	Fourth	128,500	514
San Antonio (Harlandale)	First	139,519	1,575
San Diego	Third	104,000	690
San Marcos	Sixth	75,000	585
Victoria	First	64,000	1,751
Waco	First	178,900	1,002
Waxahachie	First	51,496	150
Weslaco	Sixth	191,069	2,410
West Oso	First	198,500	150
Wichita Falls	First	98,919	100
Zapata	Sixth	135,000	949
		$8,032,283	61,143

Source: Texas Education Agency

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Regional Education Service Centers:

The state of Texas is divided into twenty educational regions and each contains a center designed, in cooperation with local school authorities, to provide services to school districts in its area in response to their needs. The operational objective of the centers is to suggest ideas, teaching materials and provide supplementary assistance and services to local school districts whenever and wherever needed or requested. Membership in a regional center is not obligatory; to participate or not is a matter for the local school district to decide. However, it is obvious that the "service center" idea has proven itself since over 90 percent of the 1,200 ISD's in Texas are participating in at least one phase of the regional program.

Administering this program on a regional basis is particularly advantageous for Texas due to its size and diversity. The focus on regional planning permits analysis and identification of local education problems and if an identifiable need cannot be met by locally available services an appeal can be made to T.E.A. for a feasibility study to determine if additional service is warranted.

Of particular interest to us are the Migrant Media Centers which provide audio materials coordinated with the curriculum offered in the Texas Child Migrant Program. Under contract to the Texas Education Agency, Region I Education Service Center in Edinburg serves all schools participating in the Texas Child Migrant Program. The center houses over 3,000 16mm films, sound filmstrip sets, and multi-media kits which are circulated to TCMP teachers. In-service workshops and institutes designed to promote effective use of instructional media are also sponsored by the Migrant Media Center for migrant school personnel.

In a few short years the Education Service Center concept has become an important adjunct to the T.E.A.'s educational effort. Having a reliable place to go for answers to problems, to borrow expertise and materials, is a big relief for those who direct local school districts.

The College Assistance Migrant Program:

The College Assistance Migrant Program (CAMP) is a project designed to provide migrant and seasonal farmworker youths an opportunity to earn a higher education at a major four year university. The program is under the sponsorship of the Office of National Projects, Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor. There are four such programs sponsored by DOL in the nation on four different campuses: St. Edward's University in Austin, Texas; Pan American University in Edinburg, Texas; California State University in San Diego, California; and Adams State College in Alamosa, Colorado. In order to participate in the program, the student must be between the ages of 17 and 24 and must have either a high school diploma, a GED certificate, or have graduated from a High School Equivalency Program (HEP). Enrollment records show that 80 percent of the students are from HEP programs and that an equal percentage are Mexican American.

CAMP is an adjunct to the many post secondary vocational training programs now available to the young migrant and seasonal farmworker family member and is designed to facilitate the entrance of the migrant youth into higher education within an environment that is supportive and does not leave development to chance. CAMP's purpose is to assist the young migrant laborer in realizing his potential and to reinforce the notion that a comfortable living is the result of hard work, acceptance of responsibility and self-discipline. Included within the program are experiences and opportunities for prevocational training, vocational training, normal student development and meaningful work activities.

All of the CAMP projects are funded directly to colleges and universities. The CAMP project has a core staff that is lodged on the host institution's campus and thereby provides day to day supportive services to the participating students. CAMP provides the students with a four to six week pre-college orientation program and these students receive regularly scheduled counseling and tutoring. Additionally, CAMP provides 100 percent of the financial assistance package of the students during the first year with the university assuming part of the cost of the aid package during the remaining years. The financial aid package normally includes monies for room and board, tuition and fees, health insurance, books, and laboratory fees. An educational expense voucher further provides for personal needs such as toilet articles and laundry expense. CAMP is a program committed to a philosophy of helping students--without jeopardizing the student's identity--to become self-sufficient in their new environment and thus master a new way of life.

The High School Equivalency Program:

High School dropouts from farmworker families receive individually tailored, intensive instruction in High School Equivalency Programs (HEP) operated at 15 college campuses throughout the United States and Puerto Rico. While earning a high school equivalency diploma, or GED, is the intermediate program goal, the main emphasis is the placement of the student into college, an advanced vocational training program, or directly into a job. Because HEP prepares farmworkers for the job world in general rather than providing them with particular job skills, the program takes into account the constant changes in the skills required by the job market. With a high school education a farmworker has a better chance at job success than someone who has a marginally marketable or outdated skill and no high school diploma. The program also offers the farmworker the opportunity to enter the job market at a higher level through the acquisition of a post-secondary degree.

B. HOUSING:

Housing, or the lack of it, is of basic significance to the problems of the migrant farmworker. During the harvest season it represents one of the major conditions of employment, while at home base it directly contributes to rootlessness and irresponsibility. Because housing and the problems associated with it are markedly different during the time of the year when migrants are traveling, as compared with the periods when they are housed in their work areas or when "at home", we are treating the three separately.

Whether furnished by the employer or otherwise acquired by the migratory laborer, housing often varies in accordance with the social and economic characteristics of the migrant. Family groups, which make up the majority of the migratory workers, obviously need housing appropriate to families, but they are seldom in a position to rent more than the very minimum of housing or to require that employers furnish it as a condition of accepting employment.

It is an accepted truism that good housing not only contributes to the health and well-being of migrant farmworkers and their families, but also is important in maintaining community health. Adequate and comfortable housing has a beneficial effect on worker efficiency and is one requirement for a stable labor force. This means that the employer who provides the best housing has a greater chance of attracting and keeping good laborers who will work as long as they are needed and most probably return the following year for more employment.

Travel Housing:

The quality of travel housing depends on the finances of the Texas migratory farmworker who migrates North each year for agricultural employment. If advanced travel monies permit, families and crews can afford to stop at cheap courts or motels and if money is limited, parking under a roadside tree or staying in a public camp ground is about the extent of choice.

Today, there are few places in the entire Midwest where our migrants can find complete and supervised rest stop facilities; none of which is within the state of Texas. The rest stop with the largest visitor count and the longest operating experience is the Migrant Farm Labor Center in Hope, Arkansas which operates a nine month season from March 1 through December 1. The Center is in its second decade of service to migrant travelers and has been at its present location since 1965.

VISITORS TO THE HOPE, ARKANSAS CENTERS

1965 - 17,905	1970 - 56,613
1966 - 28,237	1971 - 48,653
1967 - 41,676	1972 - 48,463
1968 - 48,593	1973 - 45,818
1969 - 55,652	1974 - 40,855

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The above figures are totals for an "up and back" count, as most migrants stop off on their return trip when they are homeward bound. The flow of migrant labor follows patterns of travel and it is the northbound flow of migrant farmworkers that passes by Hope in their 1,000 mile-plus drive to their work destinations. Coming from the Rio Grande Valley in a northeastern direction, the migrants leave Texas via Interstate 30 North which provides them with a direct route through Arkansas.

Although the Center was designed and built as a service center, it offers many opportunities for data and information gathering. In recapping the demographic information that is compiled from the visitor's registration forms, we find that the on-stream demographic make-up has varied slightly over the years, as shown by the following figures.

Percentage of:	Youth Under 16	Total Workers	Workers Male	Female
1969	39.6%	60.4%	52.0%	48.0%
1970	40.3%	59.7%	51.5%	48.5%
1971	40.0%	60.0%	51.8%	48.2%
1972	38.5%	61.5%	53.2%	46.8%
1973	40.0%	60.0%	53.0%	47.0%
1974	42.0%	58.0%	52.2%	47.8%

The Farm Labor Center presently consists of twenty separate house-type trailers, most of which are partitioned in the middle thus making two quarters each equipped with four bunk beds, a table and two chairs, butane wall heaters, and window air conditioning units. The centrally located rest rooms are large and completely modern and there are two large covered pavilions for food preparation using gas flame grills. There are coin machines for soft drinks and sandwiches as well as wash tubs for utensils and laundry. They have a small clinic at the Center and also an agreement with the local hospital covering 24 hour emergency service. The Center is at present funded on a year-to-year contingency basis and operates within its $70,000 yearly budget. When one considers the value of the migrant laborer, the average of $1.50 spent by the Federal government to provide workers with a reststop appears to be a good investment.

The next Rest Stop for the large number of migrants moving north to find agricultural employment is the Migrant Service Center located four miles north of Cairo, Illinois, on Route 51. The Center has been a valuable aid in finding employment for the migrant, both in farm and non-farm employment. It also has provided needed medical

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attention by making referrals to local hospitals, medical clinics and doctors. A bilingual auto mechanic is on duty 24 hours a day and has proven invaluable to migrants with emergency auto problems. Gasoline has on a few occasions been granted in emergency situations enabling migrants to reach a job destination. The Service Center also provides: sleeping facilities for approximately eighty persons, picnic tables and a barbecue grill, restrooms and showers and emergency food.

Work-Area Housing:

Even though the housing situation in farm labor camps is not what it should be, strides toward the provision of good sanitary housing have been made in some states and in isolated instances. Housing codes, whether enforced or not, generally state that the camp site shall be properly graded and drained, and have structurally sound shelters. They provide that there shall be an adequate supply of water for drinking and bathing, properly constructed toilets or privies for both sexes as well as provision for proper disposal of garbage, waste water, and refuse. However, it is obvious to those who have surveyed the situation that the mere existence of a law on the statute books does not mean that housing regulations are being enforced. The bulk of the housing for migratory workers remains relatively unchanged and it is still a disgrace in many cases, although some progress is being made in the areas where better housing already exists and where there is some competition for labor.

There is wide variation in housing arrangements. In areas where work is scattered, housing usually is in old farmhouses, while in other parts the concentration of workers frequently makes large camps necessary. Often, the housing for the migrant is free, but little relation exists between the charge and the condition of the housing facilities. One thing is for certain, greater efforts need to be made for the appropriation of funds for the enforcement of the existing housing laws, whether they be state or federal.

The migrant crew members live in a variety of housing units. Work-area housing may consist of barracks, cabins, trailers, tents, rooming houses, auto-court cabins, shack houses, and, on occasion, depreciated standard housing. Regardless of the type of facility, when the units are grouped for two or more families, they are commonly called "camps". Ownership of camps may be by employers, employers' associations, local housing authorities, labor contractors, or private commercial groups. Much, if not most, of the work-area housing for migratory farm laborers in the United States is below minimum established standards, and while this type of housing may be better in one region than in another, the noteworthy point is that whether it is considered "good" or "bad" housing, it is far below what is considered adequate for other citizens.

Work area housing for a family of four, five, or six members might consist of an unpainted cabin, one in a row of such cabins, with one or perhaps two screened windows and with unfinished interior walls. The cabin would be equipped with bunks, chairs and table, and could probably have running water. Characteristically, water suitable for drinking would be obtainable from centrally located faucets. Cooking facilities, if existent, are generally centralized. The most acceptable sanitary facilities would be flush toilets but most often only privies are available. Central shower facilities are generally equipped with hot and cold water.

A series of "good" camps, or a single such camp, might, if the migrant is fortunate, be his home from four to six months of the year. If he is so fortunate, he would be one of a minority, because even in those States that officially inspect and rate their camps, less than one-half of the inspected camps are found to be "good".

Another problem associated with work area housing, is that of privacy. While the housing available to the migrant before he entered the stream was probably not the best, he did live in a family unit, with some sense of privacy. With few exceptions, migrant quarters are such that people "live in each other's laps." There is little choice in the quarters available, and in many cases migrants have to make special living arrangements in order to prevent the family from being separated from each other. This is especially true in those households with five or more members, for most migrant housing has no quarters for the unified living of this number of people.

Home-Base Housing:

The need for adequate housing for farmworkers is undeniable since nearly 60% of all rural families with incomes of less than $3,000 live in houses which are dilapidated or lack complete plumbing. The housing problem for farmworkers in their home-base areas is compounded by their extreme poverty and the itinerant nature of their occupation. The Federal response to these problems was the 1961 and 1965 amendments to the Housing Act of 1949 which authorized the Farmers Home Administration to 1) insure loans at 5% interest to farm owners, association of farmers, governmental bodies, or public or private non-profit organizations so that they could build or repair housing for domestic farm labor, and 2) make grants to governmental bodies or public or private non-profit organizations to pay up to two-thirds of the cost of developing low rent housing for domestic farmworkers. However, the government's primary effort, the insured loan and grant program, has done disappointingly little to provide decent farm labor housing in many parts of the country.

The "permanent" housing in which migrants live for six to eight months of the year when they are not harvesting the nation's crops is among the most deplorable in the country. Primarily, it is found in shack towns or the run down sections of older communities. There are several factors which make it difficult to bring home-base housing needs within the existing public housing legislation. The particular aspects of the migrant's situation are: (1) the less than 12-month period of occupancy of home-base housing; (2) the unusual poverty of the people who need housing; and (3) the lack of integration into local communities to initiate unified requests for Federal assistance on their behalf.

The less than 12 months' occupancy of home-base housing is of importance in rental situations when alternative rental opportunities are limited. The attractiveness of the investment is obviously reduced where income is assured for only six to eight months of the year. Among wage earning groups, migrant agricultural workers are distinctive for their poverty since their income is generally well below the average of the groups housed in public housing. The examination of both work-area housing and home-base housing indicates that it is grossly inadequate and that this is a major factor in the present difficulty of procuring and holding a reliable labor supply.

Weslaco Labor Housing Center:

One bright spot in the Texas farmworker housing picture is a new, low-cost housing project at Weslaco in the Lower Rio Grande Valley, built by the Farmers Home Administration for the Hidalgo County Housing Authority and which was inaugurated on October 30, 1974. The FmHA project, which had a building cost of $1.5 million (90% grant and 10% loan at 1% interest for 25 years), was built for local farmworkers as well as for migrants when not on the stream. The new Weslaco Labor Housing Center consists of 150 block and mortar units; 18-one bedroom units at $40/month; 108-two bedroom units at $45/month; and 24-three bedroom units at $50/month. Each unit has been furnished with a refrigerator and a stove and the cost of utilities is included in the base monthly rent.

C. HEALTH:

For most people, health maintenance is more a matter of routine and habit than of conscious concern. Good health is maintained by good habits, that is by following a traditionally familiar set of actions assumed to promote continued normal health. Among the avenues to continued health are the maintenance of an adequate level of physical activity, the ingestion of proper food and fluids in moderate amounts, a balance between activity and rest, early sleeping and early rising, and the practice of moderation in all things.

The migratory workers who supply the strong backs and sensitive fingers for picking cherries, grapes, strawberries, tomatoes, asparagus, and other fruits and vegetables for our dining tables are among the poorest, least educated and most socially outcast individuals in our society. Living from day to day, they know better than most people what it means to be truly hungry and tired. Their families are often crowded into makeshift shelters, and their children are frequently two to three years behind in school. As a result, they have little opportunity to become fully functioning human beings.

Perhaps the migrants' greatest problem has been their almost total rejection by many communities in which they live. Unlike workers on the family farm, migratory workers have no place in their temporary communities. They are considered important only in terms of the work they perform. When the crops are ready for harvest, the grower and the agricultural community are eager to see them come; they are just as eager to see them leave when the work is done. Literally millions of dollars worth of crops would rot without help from migrant workers at the time and place that it is needed. But they are not seen as part of the community and as a result they are often excluded by local policy or practice from health services that they desperately need. Securing health care is a chronic crisis and the following barriers to health care conspire to make illness a major catastrophe for the migrant worker.

Services are not readily available
Transportation found only with difficulty
Patients' language and culture not understood
Excessive costs of drugs and medication
Existing clinics open at inconvenient hours
Continuity of care is difficult to maintain

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The migrant farmworker's life expectancy is approximately twenty years less than that of the average American while the infant and maternal mortality rate is two and a half times that of the national average. They tend to have higher mortalities for infections and other currently preventable diseases such as tuberculosis, influenza, pneumonia, and other respiratory disorders. Malnutrition is one of the major contributing causes of the migrant's poor health. Farmworker diets lack vitamins A,B,C, and the milk and cheese group. This vitamin shortage causes wounds and injuries to heal slowly, often produces tooth decay, rickets, and frequent gastro-intestinal problems.

Despite the obvious need for health care in rural areas, good health care services are limited for basic reasons: (1) Rapidly rising costs of modern medical equipment and services increase the disadvantage of rural areas; (2) Rural hospitals are often inadequately staffed, poorly equipped and lacking out-patient and extended care facilities; and (3) Medical specialists and emergency care are in short supply in rural areas. Due to these and other factors, a large number of migrants are left out of the general patient populace, thus do not receive health care.

Migrant health projects vary from one locality to another in the nature and scope of their services. They provide medical treatment for illness or injury, immunizations, casefinding and treatment of communicable diseases, pre and postnatal care, and other services. Family health service clinics to provide medical and, in some instances, dental care have been established in or near farm labor camps; public health nurses have been employed to visit families in the camps on a regular schedule; sanitarians have joined projects to work with the migrants and with property owners to upgrade housing and environmental conditions; and health educators have been hired to work with the migrants to develop better understanding of modern medicine and good health practices.

Many farmworker communities and migrant labor camps are so isolated from the general community that doctors are not readily available, especially when the laborer is not able to take time off from work. If time is taken, a day's work is given up, and the migrant may not have the money to pay for the services. Clinics are sometimes available but often at great distances, only during daytime, and only for residents. Therefore, the migrant and seasonal farmworker has seldom received needed medical services as a result of working hours, lack of funds, or no available clinic where he resides.

The delivery of health services to migrants in Texas was dealt a severe blow in 1972 when the proposal by the State Department of Health to refund the Migrant Health Project was not approved by the federal Public Health Service. The administrative arm of the project which operated out of Austin was phased out and ceased to function as of January 31, 1973, but its staff was absorbed by other divisions within the State Department of Health.

The 17 local migrant clinics, which have continued to operate and serve migrants in the field, are funded and audited directly from Washington through the Regional HEW office in Dallas. In 1974 every effort was made by the local migrant clinics to provide complete medical services to their patients. These included screening by nurses, care and treatment by physicians, and basic laboratory services. Specialized medical care, limited dental care and complex laboratory and x-ray procedures were provided via referral of patients to practitioners in the community who offered these services.

LOCAL MIGRANT HEALTH PROJECTS OPERATING IN TEXAS
1974-1975

Project County	Grantee Organization	Grant Expiration
Hale, Crosby, Floyd & Lamb	South Plains Health Provider Organization Project Plainview	5-31-75
Webb	Laredo-Webb County Migrant Health Department Laredo	6-31-76
Cameron	Cameron County Migrant Health Project San Benito	4-30-76
Jim Wells	Jim Wells County Migrant Health Project Alice	12-31-75
Zapata	Zapata County Migrant Health Project Zapata	12-31-75
Gonzales	Gonzales County Migrant Health Project Gonzales	5-31-76
Hidalgo	Hidalgo County Migrant Health Project Edinburg	12-31-75
La Salle	La Salle County Migrant Health Project Cotulla	3-31-75
Val Verde	Del Rio-Val Verde County Migrant Health Project Del Rio	12-31-75
Comanche	Leon Valley Migrant Health Project De Leon	5-31-75
Jim Hogg	Jim Hogg County Migrant Health Project Hebbronville	3-31-75

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Project County	Grantee Organization	Grant Expiration
Hays	San Marcos-Hays County Migrant Health Project San Marcos	10-31-76
Starr	Starr County Migrant Health Project Rio Grande City	12-31-75
Bexar	Southwest Migrant Association San Antonio	5-31-75
Deaf Smith	Deaf Smith County Migrant Health Project Hereford	5-31-75
San Patricio	San Patricio Migrant Health Center Mathis	5-31-75
Cameron and Willacy	Cameron and Willacy County Family Health Services Harlingen	4-30-76

Approximately one-sixth of the people in rural counties suffer debilitating health conditions. This is particularly true of farmworkers, whose physical limitations due to ill health further add to their economic problems since their income stops when they are unable to work.

Some 800 to 1,000 field workers are killed and 80,000 to 90,000 are injured by pesticides annually, according to the Food and Drug Administration. Ironically the ban on DDT may make the pesticide health problem even worse. Farmers who once relied on DDT are now turning to organophosphates, especially methyl parathion, one of the deadliest poisons known; just one drop on the skin can cause convulsions and even death.

Occupational Safety and Health Act (OSHA):

The United States Congress demonstrated its concern for the protection of all employees, when it passed the Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970". . . to assure so far as possible every man and woman in the Nation safe and healthful working conditions and to preserve our human resources. . ." The President, on December 29, 1970, signed this bill into law, calling it one of the most important pieces of legislation ever passed by the Congress. The legislation, which became effective on April 28, 1971, is designed to protect 60 million workers in more than 5 million workplaces. The U.S. Department of Labor, through its O.S.H.A., is responsible for setting safety and health standards and requiring compliance with them.

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OSHA is a decentralized agency with 10 regional offices, to which more than 100 area or field offices report. It is the area office that schedules and conducts workplace inspections and does so, with rare exception, without advance notice. If during an inspection, apparent safety and/or health violations are found, the inspector may issue citations and propose penalties, along, with setting a reasonable time in which the employer can correct the situations. The employer may appeal citations, proposed penalties, and abatement dates to the Occupational Safety and Health Review Commission, an independent agency not a part of the U.S. Department of Labor. The Act also established the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (N.I.O.S.H.), within the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, to conduct research in occupational safety and health.

N.I.O.S.H. reports that, while the job death rate for workers in most industries has been going down, the rate for farmworkers has risen 10 percent in 10 years. In addition to the more obvious safety hazards, the farmworker also falls victim to a variety of ailments caused by exposure to dusts, pesticides and other chemicals. The farmworker's health problems often are compounded by their remoteness from health care facilities.

From its inception April 28, 1971, through December 1974, OSHA has made 198,007 inspections resulting in 134,505 citations, alleging 649,862 violations, with proposed penalties totaling $17,493,262. Of that amount $12,704,619 has been remitted to the Secretary of the Treasury. The balance represents funds not yet collected, plus penalties proposed by OSHA that were reduced or withdrawn by order of the independent Occupational Safety and Health Review Commission after receiving employer appeals.

On September 23, 1974, proposed amendments to the existing standards for farmworker housing were published in the Federal Register by the Occupational Safety and Health Administration. In accordance with the provisions of the proposed job safety and health rules dealing with employment-related housing, numerous comments and requests for informal hearings were received by the Department of Labor. In view of the interest shown on the proposed revision of the present housing standards, six hearings were scheduled before an administrative law judge. The dates and locations of the hearings were as follows:

Washington, D.C. - January 20, 1975
Toledo, Ohio - January 23, 1975
Ft. Lauderdale, Florida - January 27, 1975
Corpus Christi, Texas - January 30, 1975
Portland, Oregon - February 4, 1975
Fresno, California - February 19, 1975

Migrant Health Referral System:

The national Office of Economic Opportunity and the Planned Parenthood Federation undertook the development and funding of an experimental health referral system for Texas migrant farmworkers during 1970. The basic objective of this effort was to establish a continuity of health services for needy Texas migrants during the time that they are away from home. All too frequently it was found that traveling workers were unable to maintain their treatment schedules or that they neglected a serious health condition which inevitably became more serious.

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Originally the referral idea for Texas was concerned only with family planning but in 1972 it was expanded to include comprehensive health services in response to an ever lengthening list of migrant health needs. This required that an effective mechanism be established to transfer current and accurate medical information from place to place and that clinics and health service providers be woven into a "medical communications network" to permit pinpoint referrals for the migrant in his work area. The two basic tools of the system are: 1) The general Migrant Referral Service Form which outlines the patient's health background and needs; and 2) the Migrant Service Directory of provider organizations and sources. The system is available to all health or social services providers that serve migrant farmworkers regardless of where they are established.

The coordinating office behind this referral system is the Migrant Referral Project based in Austin, Texas and the coordinating force is a team of health guides, better known as "consejeros". This ten person team of bilingual consejeros is outstationed in strategic migrant clinics throughout South Texas during the stay-at-home winter months and then during the summer migration they travel along with the migrants and are assigned to in-stream clinics from June through October. The consejero concept of friend-in-need assistance provides a personal advocate link between the health providers and the migrants and also serves as an outreach project monitor for the Austin office. This personalized liaison at both ends of the travel stream has been the cause of a substantial increase in referral activities in the last two years.

Last year the principal "referring" and "receiving" states, following behind Texas, were Michigan, Ohio and Minnesota and there was a total of 2,500 individual medical referrals processed under the sponsorship of the Referral Project. It is interesting to note, that as an added plus, many health referrals also include requests for assistance in other areas such as housing, food stamp information and child care thus making these cases something of a multipurpose referral instrument. It is hoped that funding support for this Project will continue as the need for it is every day more apparent.

Vocational Rehabilitation:

During the past five years, the Texas Rehabilitation Commission has become increasingly more involved in the rehabilitation of the disabled and handicapped migrant and seasonal farmworker. This particular group of citizens has required special and unique services designed especially for them, not usually necessary for other types of disabled individuals. New methods and techniques were necessary for TRC Counselors to use so that they could make certain these individuals would receive the best services possible from their rehabilitation programs.

Initially, TRC received an H.E.W. grant to develop an office in the Lower Rio Grande Valley area to serve only the migrant population. This office, in Pharr, is staffed by two counselors and an evaluation team for determining more exactly the needs of the disabled migrant farmworker. During the three years of operation this office served over 2,000 disabled migrant and seasonal farmworkers and successfully rehabilitated over 460. At the termination of the grant, the project was considered highly successful and was incorporated into the regular Vocational Rehabilitation Program, with complete TRC funding support.

To expand and further develop the migrant program, TRC received a demonstration and research grant from H.E.W. in June 1974. This grant enabled the Commission to develop three new outreach offices so that counselors would be housed in the immediate areas of heavy migrant populations. These areas, (1) Rio Grande City, (2) San Antonio-Villa Coronado, and (3) Plainview, represented locations of high migrant and seasonal farmworker involvement, and were areas in which TRC previously had only limited activity due to lack of funds and staff. In developing these three new offices, the Commission is hoping to continue to expand migrant services so that this population sector may be better served and quality rehabilitation assured on a timely basis. Staff for these offices was selected so that the counselors and evaluators were either ex-migrants or were experienced in working with the migrant population. All are bilingual and are able to relate well with the migrant population.

At the present time, counselors are becoming better acquainted in their communities and referral sources are providing an increasing number of referrals for possible rehabilitation services. In most cases these referred individuals no longer have to leave their home environment in order to receive rehabilitation services. The counselors, being in these three strategic locations, are either in the home area of the clients or are able to travel to those areas on a regular basis.

Services presently being provided disabled migrants and seasonal farmworkers are (1) medical evaluation, surgery and treatment, (2) psychological evaluation, (3) work motivation and work adjustment training, (4) vocational and academic training, (5) on-the-job training, (6) maintenance and transportation during training, (7) vocational counseling and career guidance, (8) placement in employment, and (9) follow-up counseling. Each office is accessible to a teacher-evaluator unit which provides specialized tutoring and motivational and adjusting training. This enables the client who lacks a stable vocational background to receive pre-vocational training so that he or she will be more able to cope with and adjust to more formal training or employment. The Texas Rehabilitation Commission does not intend to change the migratory activities of those individuals who prefer this type of employment. For those disabled individuals who cannot continue migrating or do not wish to, many opportunities are available for them to be retrained and placed in employment compatible with their interest and abilities.

For the purpose of clarification, the Texas Rehabilitation Commission eligibility requirements for program participation are (1) presence of physical or mental disability, (2) a resultant vocational handicap, and (3) an assessment of the individual's employability. In relation to the migrant and seasonal farmworker rehabilitation program, the TRC uses the following definitions.

A) Migrant–Migratory agricultural workers are those persons who occasionally or habitually leave their established place of residence to accept seasonal or temporary employment in another locality where they reside during the period of employment. It includes those engaged in production of agricultural crops or livestock and related farm activities as well as those engaged in off farm activities such as canning and freezing and cotton ginning. These individuals should have a history of migration whithin the last two years.

a) Since Federal funds are involved, persons accepted are not required to be legal residents of the State, but are required to reside within the State for purposes other than securing services of the Texas Rehabilitation Commission. (Manual of Policy 4.143).

b) Aliens residing within the State who possess a valid Alien Registration Card issued by the U.S. Immigration Service, or those who are exempt due to length of residency in the United States, may be accepted for Vocational Rehabilitation Services provided they meet the other criteria for eligibility. (Manual of Policy 4.144)

B) Seasonal Farmworker--Seasonal farmworkers are those individuals who engage in seasonal or temporary agricultural work but do not leave their place of residence to do so. They must have worked at least four (4) months in seasonal farmwork and derive their primary income from this type of work. These individuals will have had to engage in this type of work within the past year and must also meet the other TRC eligibility criteria.

Food Stamps:

It can be said, with little chance of contradiction, that our nation's Food Stamp program is the most all-encompassing, most expensive and most controversial human food assistance program in the world. Although the program, in its present form, became the law of the land under President Johnson's signature in 1964 it was not until a decade later that every county in the nation was enrolled and actively participating.

Last year, therefore, was the first opportunity to develop pertinent figures on a program that grew from an experimental New Deal food distribution plan (introduced in Rochester, N.Y. in 1939 to offer the poor the option of getting surplus farm products at grocery stores rather than at welfare offices) into a general food aid program that is helping to feed over 8% of our population. By the end of 1974 there were 17.5 million persons in the program at an annual cost of $6 plus billions. From December 1973 to last December the number of participants increased by 35% and just a cursory glance at our nation's year-end economic picture indicates more of the same for the immediate future. At the close of last year the first four states in number of Food Stamp participants were California with over 1.3 million, Texas and New York with approximately 1.1 million each followed by Illinois with almost 850,000.

The controversies aluded to at the beginning come from a variety of sources and cover a multitude of complaints and opinions. The U.S. Department of Agriculture, which is wholly responsible for the program, has made public the fact that the Food Stamp Program consumes an unbelievable 64% of the department's entire budget. The USDA contends that the program is basically "welfare" and should therefore be moved to the DHEW since it is estimated that only 50c of each dollar spent actually goes for food and the other 50c merely replaces the recipient's money which is then used for purposes other than food. Another cause for alarm within the USDA is their own estimation that, under present regulations and guidelines, less than half of the truly eligible are actually participating in the program. In other words the enrollment could foreseeably double if all who had the right were to join the program and the total cost to the department would likewise double. Coupled with this is the dilemma of inflation induced cost increases and where they are taking the program financially. On January 1, 1974 there was a 22% increase in the basic aid for a four person family (from $116 to $142) and before midyear the Congress ordered the USDA to "review and adjust" the need levels on a six months basis instead of the regular annual review called for under the law. July 1st then saw a 5.6% increase in allotment (up to $150) and at year's end there were few prognosticators willing to predict where this trend would lead.

Participants complain of the lengthy certification process and the all too frequent need to renew and update the application for their ATP (authorization to purchase). Non participants complain that program abusers using fraudulent eligibility information and regulations loopholes now amount to at least 10% of the program's case load and that more effort should be made to eliminate these undeserving freeloaders.

In Texas, the program has shown essentially the same growth pattern for the first full year except that here we find a modest summertime dip during the five months that the migrants were away from their homes. For instance, the Lower Rio Grande Valley region showed an 18% decrease in program cost during the summer and the Laredo area showed 8% less:

TEXAS STATEWIDE
FOOD STAMP PROGRAM

December 1973 to November 1974 **In Thousands**

Month	Households	Total Coupon Value	Total Bonus Value	Bonus, % of Total
December	267.7	$25,142	$ 16,242	64.60
January	281.9	32,266	22,459	69.61
February	288.7	33,036	22,755	68.88
March	300.0	34,450	23,507	68.23
April	305.6	35,255	23,754	67.38
May	303.6	35,161	23,236	66.09
June	293.3	33,645	22,118	66.00
July	292.5	35,531	23,841	67.10
August	295.4	35,889	24,071	67.07
September	295.6	36,244	24,294	67.03
October	303.6	37,555	25,097	66.83
November	311.2	38,867	25,944	66.75
Year Total:	3,539.2	413,100	277,368	- -
Monthly Ave.	294.9	34,425	23,114	67.14

Texas Department of Public Welfare

0060

Some comparisons of Texas figures with national averages are of interest and prove again that the Texas poor seem to be poorer and there are more of them.

	Texas	U.S.
% of total population participating	8.8	8.3
Average number of persons/household	3.6	3.3
Bonus as % of total Coupon Value	67.1	61.0
% on "Public Assistance" (AFDC)	22	18

Principal among the participants in the Food Stamp program in Texas are Mexican American citizens who make up almost half of the total recipients although they amount to only 18% of the total population. The Texas Department of Community Affairs conducted an in-depth study of poverty and was able to document that one out of every five persons (20%) in Texas is poor, that one out of three Mexican Americans (33%) in Texas is poor and that two out of five persons (40%) in South Texas are poor. Thus we see that South Texas, with its critical economic situation, is the region most influential in causing our statistics to be higher than the national average in all categories. For example; Starr County, which borders on the Rio Grande, had a year long average of 50% of its households enrolled in the Food Stamp program and during the month of May, just as the migrant workers were leaving for the work areas, it was 72%.

Texas is a big state in size and also big in regional ethnic diversity. In the following chart, showing ethnic group participation, we have chosen some regions at random to compare with the statewide averages which appear at the head of the list. The differences are startling, to say the least.

FOOD STAMP PROGRAM
Ethnic Group Participation
October 1974

Comparison: Random Selected Regions & Counties

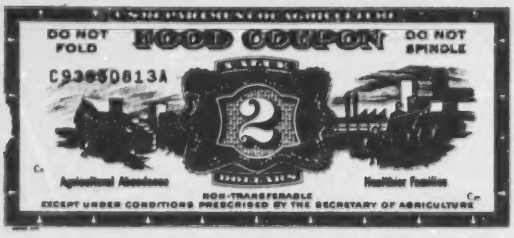
Region/County	Black	Mexican-American	White	Others	Total
State Totals	351,546	518,117	212,403	14,005	1,096,071
%	32.0	47.3	19.4	1.3	
Lower Rio Grande					
Cameron	178	42,969	1,328	342	44,817
Hidalgo	79	68,159	1,238	342	69,818
Starr	0	10,702	46	140	10,888
Willacy	28	5,958	156	48	6,190
%	0.2	97.0	2.1	0.7	
Central Texas					
Bexar	13,326	85,005	10,422	1,211	109,964
Travis	8,896	9,333	6,311	386	24,926
%	16.5	69.9	12.4	1.2	

0061

Region/County	Black	Mexican-American	White	Others	Total
High Plains					
Castro	158	1,409	95	0	1,662
Deaf Smith	126	2,179	172	44	2,521
Dimmit	27	3,670	42	5	3,744
Lubbock	3,657	5,935	2,017	86	11,695
%	20.2	67.2	11.9	0.7	
Webb	9	28,149	343	174	28,675
%	-	98.2			
Jefferson	14,525	233	3,225	74	18,057
%	80.4	1.3			
Various:					
Harris	78,093	18,130	14,347	2,412	112,982
Maverick	0	7,571	64	72	7,707
Nueces	3,091	29,498	3,637	703	36,929
Tarrant	22,754	4,588	15,310	465	43,117
El Paso	1,125	41,493	2,949	648	46,215
Zavala	20	3,974	36	35	4,065

Food Stamp purchasers in the Lower Rio Grande Valley are mostly Mexican Americans. We see that Central Texas and the High Plains compare with each other but do not compare with the state averages. The ethnic make up of recipients in Maverick, Webb and Zavala counties is the direct opposite of that in Jefferson and Tarrant counties.

Near the close of 1974 two significant changes took place in the Texas Department of Public Welfare which will prove beneficial to our migrant workers and influence more of them to take advantage of the Food Stamp program. First, the Department reorganized its administrative approach to the program by consolidating seventeen project areas,which were being directed from Austin, into ten new areas with an on the spot director in each of them. This permits adjusting the program to local needs involving local decision making. Secondly, a position has been created within the Social Services division of the Department to be responsible for coordinating welfare services to migrants. High on the list of priorities for this administrative officer is that of promulgating program guidelines and information so as to get all of the lawfully eligible migrant households into the programs. The goal is to counteract both the inherent reluctance of the migrant to ask for services and his lack ot knowledge of what services he is qualified to apply for.



0062

W.I.C. Program:

This is another supplemental food delivery program that migrant families can participate in and which is also sponsored by the U.S. Department of Agriculture through its Food and Nutrition Service, for the benefit of mothers and infant children of low income families. The WIC program, whose official title is, Special Supplemental Food Program for Women, Infants and Children, is channeled through state health departments and made operational at the local level by public or private non-profit health clinics are required to demonstrate that they serve persons of low income who are often considered to be nutritional risks, that they have the necessary facilities and staff to perform the medical examinations called for in the program, as well as other resources needed to meet the USDA goals. The key word in this supplemental food-at-no-cost program is "nutrition". For pregnant and lactating mothers, as well as for infants and young children the quality and nutritional value of food intake is far more important for body health and growth than is quantity. The thrust of this program is to assure, therefore, that mother and child, from gestation through infancy, receive the Recommended Daily Allowances of protein, essential minerals and vitamins - nutrients known to be lacking in the diets of most low income families.

Authorized under the Child Nutrition Act of 1966, the WIC program was established in September of 1972 on a pilot basis under the terms of Public Law 92-433, however it got off to a very slow start; so slow in fact that it was effectively at a standstill. Changes in program design and the endless juggling of regulations were blamed for almost a year's delay in getting started, and even then the going was anything but smooth. For instance, cash grants were to be made by the USDA to state health departments to purchase and distribute the supplemental food items, but when this method proved to be unwieldy and inefficient the program opted for paying cash directly to the food supplier, namely the grocer. Other problems appeared, particularly in the areas of medical examination/evaluation and client eligibility criteria, which were ultimately solved and 1974 proved to be a year of phenomenal growth worthy of praise from the USDA.

Participation of the needy in this program is the essence of simplicity. The low income or poverty burdened mother may enter herself and children under four, by visiting the local program to establish eligibility and be examined by the clinic doctor. After this initial procedure an exam is required after six months, another at the end of a year and a final evaluation exam when the participants leave the program. All other visits are for the purpose of food voucher renewal. In this regard a convenience feature for migrant mothers is that some states are willing to issue up to three months "worth of vouchers (only one month in Texas) at one time, so even though she and her youngsters are traveling "in the stream" her nutritional supplements are assured. It should be remembered, of course, that these foods are intended to supplement the regular diet and not to be considered a complete diet in themselves.

Although at year's end directives from the USDA to the state health departments gave the states more flexibility and more autonomy in program management which permitted caseload and budget transfers from project to project, the first program year was nevertheless very carefully monitored and evaluated by Washington. Since the USDA was paying 100% of the bill - as directed by Congress - it had the responsibility to document the success or failure of the entire WIC program.

The Texas WIC program, which is now the largest in the nation in budget as well as caseload, issued its first food voucher on March 4, 1974 at the Montgomery County Health Department. By June 30th 42,848 individuals had received vouchers and by December 31st the number had increased five fold to 220,344. In the case of Texas, four critical areas were followed closely by the usual procedure of matching "budget proposal" against "actual" to determine performance. A comparison of the first four months and the next six months, as shown on the following chart, indicates the program's growth in size and operating efficiency.

TEXAS "WIC" PROGRAM PERFORMANCE
1974

	March - June 30 (18 Projects)			July - December 31 (20 Projects)		
	Budget	**Actual**	**%**	**Budget**	**Actual**	**%**
A. Participants	155,775	42,848	28	252,216	177,496	70
B. Food Value	$3,708,200	812,370	22	5,377,183	3,539,217	66
C. Clinic Costs	242,500	147,086	61	313,834	247,473	79
D. Administration*	90,263	131,135	13.9	393,244	253,966	6.7

*10 month average = 8%

The dramatic fall in administration cost percentage was due in part to the fact that the USDA paper work has been much reduced as has project "seed money" requirements for project start-up. However, the new computer card distribution system and channeling delivery through the participating grocers has been the principal source of savings in this area. In addition to this, Texas was designated as a one-project state which means it no longer has to account directly to the USDA for each individual project, but rather is only held accountable for the "bottom line figure" (state total) of the budget categories.

FOUR LEADING PROJECTS TEXAS "WIC" PROGRAM
July - December 31, 1974

	Partici-pants	Food Value	Clinic Costs	Adminis-tration	Cost/ Partic.
1. Coastal Bend	36,317	$683,821	$ 7,932	$44,089	$20.26
2. Hidalgo County	18,109	349,030	83,282*	29,714	25.51
3. Bexar County	16,486	345,758	6,010	15,575	22.28
4. Cameron County	16,800	296,348	64,317*	17,738	22.52

The two Lower Rio Grande Valley projects marked * along with the Driscoll Foundation project based in Corpus Christi are the three that were chosen for in-depth evaluation based on medical criteria to establish program performance on a measure of health improvement. This procedure of continuing medical evaluation requires much more thorough and costly clinical examinations hence these projects have a much higher per case cost than the state average of $20. For the ten months period; Hidalgo County = $26., Cameron County = $38., and Driscoll Foundation = $49.

The computer type cards (eleven in number) are color coded, with titles in English and Spanish and a hand drawn illustration of the item. These cards carry two signature lines on the back since the card must be signed at the time of receiving it and again when it is being presented to the grocer as payment. The list of food items that may be redeemed with these cards is as follows:

Iron fortified infant formula
Whole, low-fat and evaporated milk
Whole and non-fat dehydrated milk
Cheese and eggs
Cereals for infants and children
Natural juices

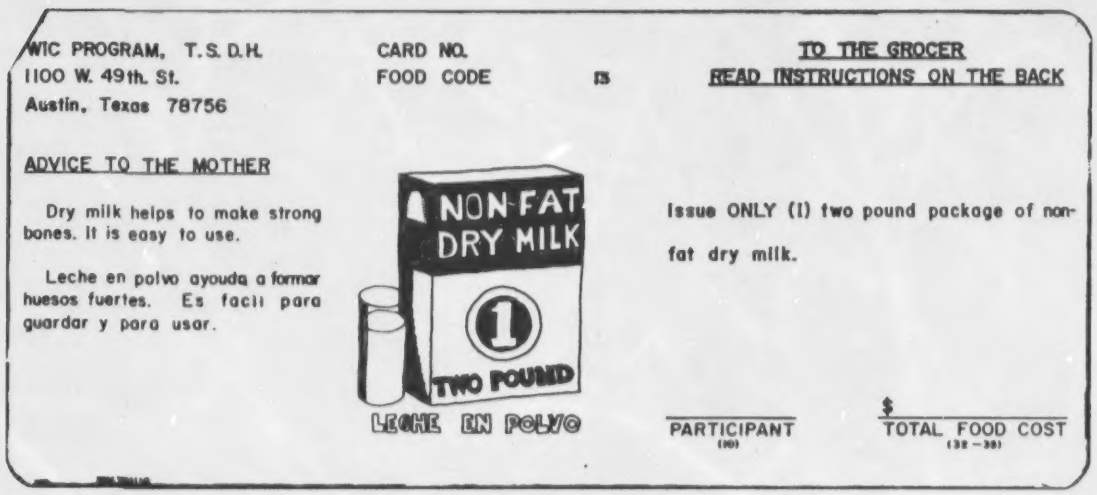
An interesting sidelight is that whole milk amounts to 80% of the lactic related items that are chosen. Treatment of this topic would not be complete without explaining the vital role that the grocer plays in this program. The grocer not only carries these items for immediate delivery from his floor stock, he also has the bother of gathering together the coded cards, listing them and sending them on to the Health Department in Austin for authorization of payment and finally waiting for a check to be issued by the State Comptroller. This can take as much as three weeks time. It would seem necessary for the grocers to charge some sort of fee for this trouble and delay but instead they consider it as "plus" business that they would not receive were it not for the program so they hold to their marked prices.

0065

Project Listing as of December 31, 1974

1. Austin-Travis County Health Department
2. Bowie County Economic Advancement Corp.
3. Cameron County Health Department
4. Catholic Charities Family Service
5. Children and Youth Project #660
6. Children and Youth Project, Ped. Dept.
7. Dallas Public Health Department
8. Coastal Bend Migrant Council, Inc.
9. Denison-Sherman-Grayson Health Departments
10. Community Action Council of South Texas
11. Galveston County Coordinated Clinics
12. Hidalgo County Health Department
13. Laredo-Webb County Health Department
14. Lubbock Well Baby Clinic
15. Montgomery County Health Department
16. Southwest Migrant Association Health Project
17. UT Health Science Center, Houston
18. Community Council of Bee County
19. Centro de Salud of Zavala County
20. South Plains Health Provider, Plainview

The WIC program, still in the category of a pilot program, has been extended until June 30, 1975, with an annual budget of $130 million of which 10% goes to Texas. At the close of 1974 there were five new projects for Texas processed and approved which will begin after the start of 1975 and once operational they will bring the total monthly caseload to 70,000. Next year, when a decision must be made as to the future of the program, the evaluation studies will leave no doubt as to the program's beneficial value to our migrants and other low income families, however the nation's economy and the will of Congress cannot be predicted with equal certainty so the long range future of WIC remains unknown for now.

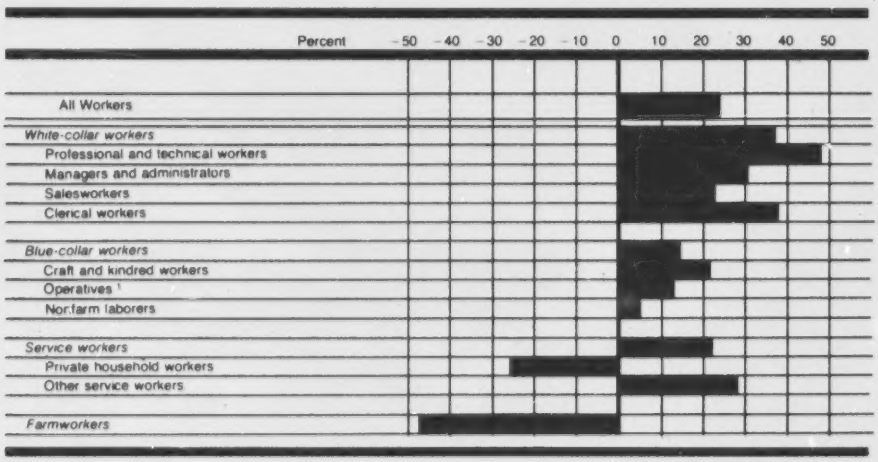

WIC PROGRAM, T.S.D.H.
1100 W. 49th. St.
Austin, Texas 78756
CARD NO.
FOOD CODE
TO THE GROCER
READ INSTRUCTIONS ON THE BACK
ADVICE TO THE MOTHER
Dry milk helps to make strong bones. It is easy to use.
Leche en polvo ayouda a formar huesos fuertes. Es facil para guardar y para usar.
NON-FAT DRY MILK
1
TWO POUND
LECHE EN POLVO
Issue ONLY (1) two pound package of non-fat dry milk.
PARTICIPANT
$
TOTAL FOOD COST

0066

D. EMPLOYMENT:

No one can forecast the future. Nevertheless, by using the information available, extensive economic and statistical analyses, and the best judgement of informed persons, the work future can be described in broad terms. The U.S. Department of Labor reports that interaction of the various factors affecting occupational growth will change the occupational composition of the United States economy between 1972 and 1985. However, projections indicate that most long-term trends among the major categories of workers--white-collar, blue-collar, service and farmworkers--can be expected to continue. Total employment is expected to increase by about 24 percent between 1972 and 1985, from 81.7 million to 101.5 million. Even though employment in general will increase, projections indicate employment of farmworkers will decline from 3.1 million to 1.6 million over the 1972-85 period.

Projected Change in Major Categories of Workers, 1972-85
(in percent)



The number of farmworkers who make up nearly 90 percent of all workers in agriculture, is expected to decline by nearly one-half during this 1972-85 time period. This represents a somewhat faster rate of decline than that of the 1960-72 period. Their share of total employment also is expected to fall, from 3.8 percent in 1972 to 1.6 percent in 1985. The annual rate of decline is expected to be slower between 1980 and 1985 (-4.4 percent) than from 1972 to 1980 (-5.4 percent). Declining needs for farmworkers will continue to be related to rising productivity on farms. Improved machinery, fertilizers, seeds, and feed will permit farmers to increase output with fewer employees. For example, improved mechanical harvesters for vegetables and fruits will decrease the need for seasonal or other hired labor. Developments in packing, inspection, and sorting systems for fruits, vegetables, and other farm products also will reduce employment requirements.

The Department of Labor reports that projections of growth of occupations provide only a part of the story of future manpower requirements. Of greater importance is the demand for new workers created because of workers who retire, die, or leave their jobs for other reasons. Over the 1972-85 period, about twice as many openings will result from replacements than from growth. Total openings arising from occupational growth and replacement needs will be about 61.2 million between 1972-85, or an average of about 4.7 million jobs annually. Replacement needs will total 41.4 million, accounting for 2 of every 3 job openings.

Replacement of workers who leave the labor force will be the most significant source of job openings in each of the major occupational areas. Each year an average of 3.5 workers out of every 100 retire, die, or leave the labor force for other reasons. Farmworkers have a higher separation rate, about 4.9 percent are expected to leave the labor force each year. Farmworkers are generally older than the average of other workers since about 20 percent of them were 60 years of age or older in 1970, compared to 10 percent of the nation's total workers. Consequently, a relatively large number reture or die. Despite a large outflow of older people, however, employment opportunities in farming are expected to be scarce because the number of replacements needed in this field is not nearly as great as the number of retirements and deaths.

Farmworkers Get Minimum Wage:

In April, the President signed a minimum wage bill approved by Congress, (S-2747) and the following is a summary of the basic provisions of the new legislation

1) The generally applicable minimum wage is increased from the present $1.60 an hour to $2.00 on May 1, 1974; $2.10 on January 1, 1975; and $2.30 on January 1, 1976.

2) The agricultural minimum wage is increased from the present $1.30 an hour to $1.60 on May 1, 1974; $1.80 on January 1, 1975; and $2.00 on January 1, 1976.

3) The Act provides an exemption from minimum wage coverage for any worker who fits any one of the following descriptions: a) A worker employed in agriculture if employed by an employer who did not, during any calendar quarter of the preceding calendar year, use more than five hundred man-days of agricultural labor; b) A worker employed in agriculture if such worker is the parent, spouse, child, or other member of the employer's immediate family; c) A worker employed in agriculture if: he is employed as a hand harvester on a piece rate basis in an operation customarily paid on a piece rate basis in the area; he commutes daily from his permanent residence to the farm where employed; and he was employed in agriculture in less than thirteen weeks during the preceding calendar year; d) A worker employed in agriculture if: he is 16 years of age or under and is employed as a hand harvester on a piece rate basis in an operation customarily paid on a piece rate basis in the area; and he is employed on the same farm as his parent and is paid the same piece rate as employees over sixteen are paid on the same farm.

0068

Farmworkers Get Unemployment Compensation:

Unemployment compensation has finally come to farmworkers. Reacting to the crisis caused by recession, Congress in December 1974 passed legislation which would, for the first time, cover agriculture workers, domestics and state and local government employees. Signed into law by the President, HR-16596 is an effort to alleviate the effects of mass unemployment. In a three-pronged program, the act extended coverage to approximately 12 million persons previously not eligible; authorized $2.5 billion for public services jobs, through Title VI, newly added to the Comprehensive and Employment Training Act; and authorized a further $500 million for the Department of Commerce to review federal public works projects for job opportunities and to make grants for those created.

The Farm Labor Contractor or Crew Leader:

The crew leader is essentially a "middle man" who contracts with one or more growers in the up-stream states to supply the labor needed for harvesting crops. The crew members are listed from among available workers in the communities which serve as home base for the migrants during the winter months. Arrangements vary from crew to crew, as does the scope of the crew leader's operation. Some operate only in one state and for one grower; others include operations in several states and for a number of growers. Some crew leaders provide transportation for all of their workers, while others truck the household necessities and the workers travel in private cars. Most crews, however, attempt to enlist all needed workers before moving on to their work destinations. The crew system serves to stabilize employment patterns, both for the worker and the grower.

For the grower, the success of his operation is, first of all, dependent upon the weather. An untimely frost or a prolonged wet or dry spell can, and often does, ruin a crop. Fluctuations in market prices can make a crop very valuable or, even a few hours later, worthless except for plowing under as "green fertilizer". The lack of suitable labor supply at the appropriate time can spell financial ruin so far as a particular crop is concerned. Fortunes can be made in vegetables, but you can also end up on the losing end.

For the crew leader, the hazards are equally great, if only in proportion to the size of his operation. The quality of the labor he is able to enlist can vary greatly; a crew may consist of conscientious, reliable workers or it may include quarrelsome, lazy individuals who will work only when hunger presses. The crew may become disgruntled about working or housing conditions, or even about the weather, and desert their leader. The condition of the crops may be such that the leader is unable to provide full employment, and he finds it necessary to subsidize the crew in their living costs.

For the migrant, agricultural labor is no less hazardous. Lacking any but the most rudimentary bargaining power, he is at the mercy of the climatic and economic forces which determine his job opportunities. He is also at the mercy of the grower and the crew leader who many times provide inadequate housing facilities and bad working conditions. Some crew leaders still transport their migrant crop pickers in unsafe trucks and buses, withhold part of workers' wages, and in some cases even fail to keep the contracts with growers.

Although, crew leader registration efforts are made each year to acquaint crew leaders with provisions of the federal farm labor recruiters law, still many crew leaders ignore this law to avoid the cost of liability insurance, approved transportation, etc. Knowing that the Department of Labor has no enforcement powers in this respect, it is easy to see why there has been such a drop in the number of crew leader registrations within the past several years.

CREW LEADERS REGISTERED

1968--1,446	1971--1,330
1969--1,562	1972--1,072
1970--1,561	1973-- 915

1974--594

Significant changes in the "Farm Labor Contractor Registration Act of 1963" were enacted by the 1974 amendments to the Act signed into law on December 7, 1974. These changes and their effect on the crew leaders and the migrant farmworkers will prove to be quite profound in the years ahead. In essence, the amendments were written to extend the coverage of the Act and to strengthen federal protection of migrant farmworkers from exploitation by crew leaders, and to guarantee them fair treatment in the work areas. In this respect the original Act had the same basic objectives and the restrictions and prohibitions imposed were clearly stated. However, from the beginning the Act suffered from three very severe shortcomings which so crippled it that it became ineffective in accomplishing its laudable goals. In the first place the Act was all too inadequate in its coverage as there are many areas for possible abuse that were not dealt with. Secondly, there was no flexibility in the assessment of penalties for violations of the Act nor was there any provision for the automatic revocation of the contractor's license for noncompliance under certain conditions. And lastly, no procedure was established for designated representatives of the Secretary of Labor to make inspections and investigations into crew leader activities, whether or not there was a complaint involved. Hence, since the Act had little teeth in it and its enforcement was virtually impossible, the resultant falling off of crew leader registration which we have shown above was to be expected. Since this situation had been obvious for several years, it is amazing that it has taken virtually a decade to legislate these needed amendments.

Staring at the very beginning of the Act, with "Definitions", we will comment on the principal changes and their intended purpose:

--The term "farm labor contractor" has been broadened to include any person who, for a fee for himself or another, recruits, solicits, furnishes or transports any migrant worker (the Act states ten or more) for agriculture or related employment, either within a state or across state lines (before, it applied to interstate farm work only).

--In addition to the Act's requirement that the crew leader must register and have the certificate always in his immediate possession, a new provision now requires that the employer ascertain if the labor contractor is actually certified or not. If the labor consumer fails to do so he can be denied the services of the Employment Service for a period up to three years.

--New provisions now require that the crew leader carry increased accident and liability insurance, equivalent to that of common carriers, and that he must file a statement that his vehicles and the housing to be used, meet applicable federal and state standards for safety and health.

--Added to the reasons for certification denial or for revocation by the Secretary, is a new one prohibiting crew leaders from engagement with "any person who is an alien not lawfully admitted to the United States for permanent residence".

--A new provision requiring crew leaders to report a change of address to the Secretary within 10 days.

--New guidelines concerning "information disclosure" require the crew leader to give the worker, and written in the language in which he is most fluent, the terms, conditions and period of employment; existence and nature of a labor dispute if one exists; the existence of any kickback arrangements with commercial suppliers of goods or services, and finally, the charges and commissions that the contractor makes to the workers for his services.

--A new provision prohibits the labor contractor from requiring his workers to purchase their needed goods exclusively from himself or another person. It also requires him to pay migrant employees promptly **all** monies due them (thus putting a stop to the abuse of "bonus withholding" which crew leaders often practice to assure that the worker stays with him until the season is over or until he sees fit to release the worker).

--New penalty provisions increase the maximum civil money fine to $1,000 (it was $500) coupled with possible imprisonment of up to one year for the first violation. For any subsequent violation the fine can reach as much as $10,000 and a jail term of up to three years.

--Three new sections added to the Act provide that aggrieved persons may file claims in any U.S. District Court and said court has the authority to appoint an attorney for the complainant; prohibits discrimination or retaliation against farmworkers because they have exercised their rights under this Act; and lastly requires that any person to whom workers are furnished by a certified contractor, must maintain all payroll records required under federal law.

The Farm Labor Contractor Registration Act was necessary in 1963 as needed protection for migrant farmworkers who were unprepared or unable to assure fair and honest treatment for themselves, and it is necessary now for the same fundamental reason. It is generally felt that these amendments to the crew leader registration act make for a well rounded and enforceable law. Of course, more will be known concerning this premise by closely watching the total registration figures in the coming years as well as the number of suits filed and the number of judgments handed down against violators.

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Other responsibilities of the monitor/advocate include:

1) To provide technical assistance to local offices in establishing complaint procedures by assistance in staff training, development of directives and proper forms and procedures for referral to other agencies, ensuring establishment of files, development of desk aids and references as necessary follow-up to ensure a properly operating and easily accessible system.

2) To provide technical assistance to operating divisions of the State employment service to ensure that monitoring procedures and directives related to the 13 points are properly developed and implemented.

3) To review and take corrective action on complaints not resolved at the local level; to elevate to the regional office unresolved complaints; and to process interstate complaints and provide for follow-up action necessary for resolution.

4) To work with ES representatives to the State Manpower Services Council to provide that rural residents' and migrant farmworkers' needs are considered in the development of projects and programs.

5) To review self-appraisal reports to determine violations of directives and guidelines related to the Secretary's 13 points; to report unresolved issues to responsible State and regional officials.

6) To participate, as needed, in administrative reviews of local offices and in regular self-appraisal reviews to ensure that the intent of the monitoring system is followed.

7) To work closely with staff providing manpower services to rural residents and/or migrants and farmworkers.

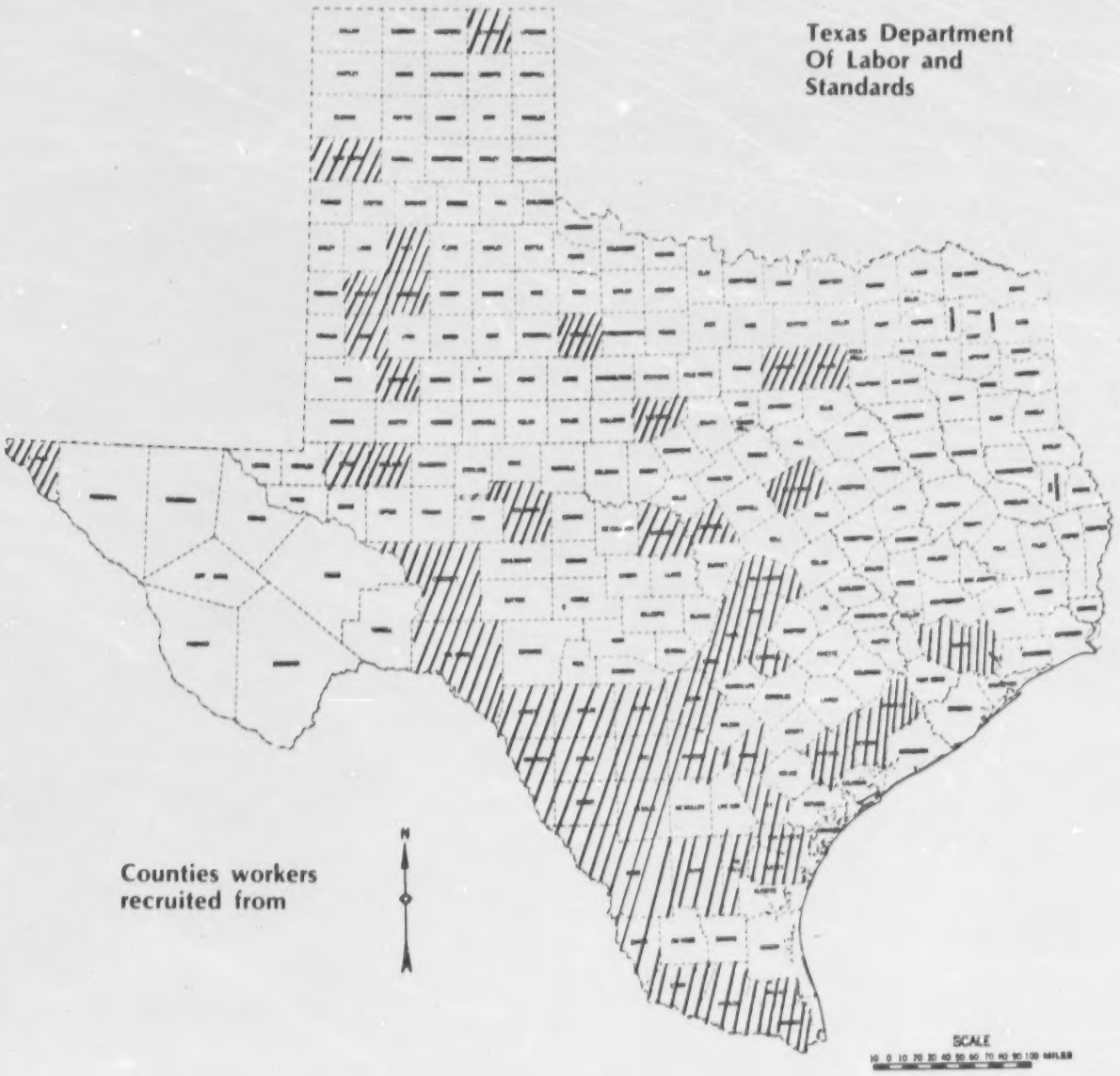
8) To work closely with minority group representatives to ensure that problems of discrimination are resolved and that services to rural residents and migrants are included in regular EEO reviews of local offices.

9) To prepare and file quarterly reports on the status of the implementation of the Secretary's 13 point program.

In Texas, 816 worker complaints were registered in 1974. Seventy percent of this total was from people who were not referred by the Texas Employment Commission. Of the thirty percent handled by T.E.C. only 8 percent were complaints made by agricultural workers. Approximately 80 percent of all complaints were caused by monetary problems.

Texas Department of Labor and Standards:

The Texas Department of Labor and Standards, which is charged with the enforcement of the Labor Agency Law, licensed 23 labor agents to recruit workers in 22 different Texas counties during 1974. There were 34,007 common or agricultural workers recruited from 51 different Texas counties, with the heaviest recruitment done during the month of May. These workers were recruited to perform 30 different types of work in 32 different states and received up to $3.00 per hour, depending on the job. Following is a map which shows the counties where common or agricultural workers were recruited.



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SELECTED AGENCIES AND PROGRAMS

A. Inter-Agency Task Force on Migrant Labor:

An inter-agency task force on migrant labor was established by the Good Neighbor Commission in late 1970 on instructions from Governor Preston Smith to: "catalog migrant needs, make an inventory of all on-going federal and state migrant programs and develop a state plan to bring into focus all resources at hand to produce some immediate as well as long range solutions to the Texas migrant problem."

This Task Force of representatives from state agencies having migrant oriented programs and services has continued to meet periodically for the purpose of exchanging views and ideas consistent with the requirements of the Good Neighbor Commission's basic law:

(1) Develop specific programs in coordination with individual State agencies, to achieve the betterment of migrants' travel and living conditions, such programs to be promulgated and enforced by the agency or agencies concerned;

(2) Analyze federal and state rules and regulations affecting migrant labor to determine their effect on Texas citizens and consult with federal and state agencies in the promulgation and formulation of rules and regulations;

(3) Survey conditions and study problems related to migrant labor in Texas;

(4) Advise and consult with local governmental units, and with interested groups and organizations concerning matters affecting migrant labor;

(5) Report to the Governor and the Legislature annually, or more frequently as indicated, on developments arising under these Subdivisions.

At the present time, the state agencies that comprise this Migrant Task Force include:

Texas Education Agency
Texas Employment Commission
Texas Office of Economic Opportunity
Texas Rehabilitation Commission
Texas Department of Community Affairs
State Department of Health
Department of Labor and Standards
Department of Public Safety
Department of Public Welfare
Greater South Texas Cultural Basin Commission
Governor's Office of Migrant Affairs
Good Neighbor Commission

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During 1974 the Task Force appointed a Legislative Committee to prepare a file of subjects and materials for possible legislative action during the next regular session of the state legislature. The review of present legislation and the materials that are being prepared will be the foundation for important migrant legislation which is so vitally needed in our State.

The Inter-Agency Task Force on Migrant Labor will continue to promote interstate coordination on migrant affairs and to strive for consistent and effective delivery of services to the migrants throughout the nation, and further: (1) to provide a framework for participating agencies to work together in defining and solving shared problems; (2) to be of mutual assistance in defining the need for and the development of legislation designed to improve the "travel and living conditions of migrant laborers in Texas"; and (3) to share information on significant migrant programs operated or sponsored by groups or organizations other than the member State agencies.

B. Governor's Office of Migrant Affairs (GOMA):

The Governor's Office of Migrant Affairs is an agency of the State of Texas created by Executive Order signed by Governor Dolph Briscoe on April 9, 1974. The need for more coordination among Federal and State agencies in providing a consistent delivery of services to migrant and seasonal farmworkers and the Governor's commitment to the migrant and seasonal farmworker population prompted its inception.

The functions of the newly-created migrant office are:

(1) Keep the Governor's Office continuously apprised of all new federal legislation and funding sources which might be used to develop new programs which could have positive impact on migrants;

(2) To act continuously as liaison with federal, state and local agencies which implement such programs;

(3) To represent the Governor's Office in disseminating information to migrant groups;

(4) To keep the Governor's Office apprised of the needs and problems of migrant groups on a regular basis;

(5) To work with the Governor's Office in identifying present and future resources at the federal, state and local levels which may be used to affect migrant problems;

(6) To explore avenues of funding available for the benefit of migrant and seasonal farmworkers, and if necessary, set up the mechanisms to apply for such funds; and

(7) To offer assistance for the delivery of services where necessary and help avoid duplication.

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The Governor's Office of Migrant Affairs intends to address itself to increasing coordination of services to our Texas migrant and seasonal farmworkers and presently: (1) has developed and submitted an application for funding to the Office of Economic Opportunity, Region VI, for the purpose of assisting migrant and seasonal farmworkers with emergency food and medical services; (2) has developed and submitted the Qualification Statement for GOMA to the regional and national Department of Labor offices for the purpose of securing, implementing and administering Title III, Section 303 of the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act for the state of Texas.

The two main objectives of Title III, Section 303 are: (a) To enable farmworkers and their dependents to obtain or retain employment or to participate in other program activities leading to their eventual placement in unsubsidized employment; and (b) To assist those farmworkers who wish to remain as seasonal agricultural employees, in improving their well-being.

C. Juarez-Lincoln National Migrant Information Clearinghouse:

The Juarez-Lincoln National Migrant Information Clearinghouse, located on the campus of St. Edward's University in Austin, Texas, was established in 1972 on the premise that the migrant projects in operation at that time needed a resource center and data bank with national scope. The information clearinghouse's primary duties are collecting, analyzing and disseminating information regarding migrants and migrant related programs. Once these tasks have been accomplished, all information is then consolidated into comprehensive files and stored for future reference.

All materials produced by the federally-funded Clearinghouse are disseminated nationally at no cost to federal and state agencies or any other migrant program operators desiring such information. Among the publications that have been published by the Center are directories on: Migrant Programs in the states of Texas, California, Michigan, Wisconsin, Ohio, Florida and in the Central Receiver States, Eastern Receiver States and the Western Receiver States where migrants travel and work. The purpose of these directories is to consolidate under one cover a listing of all services and resources available to migrant farmworkers.

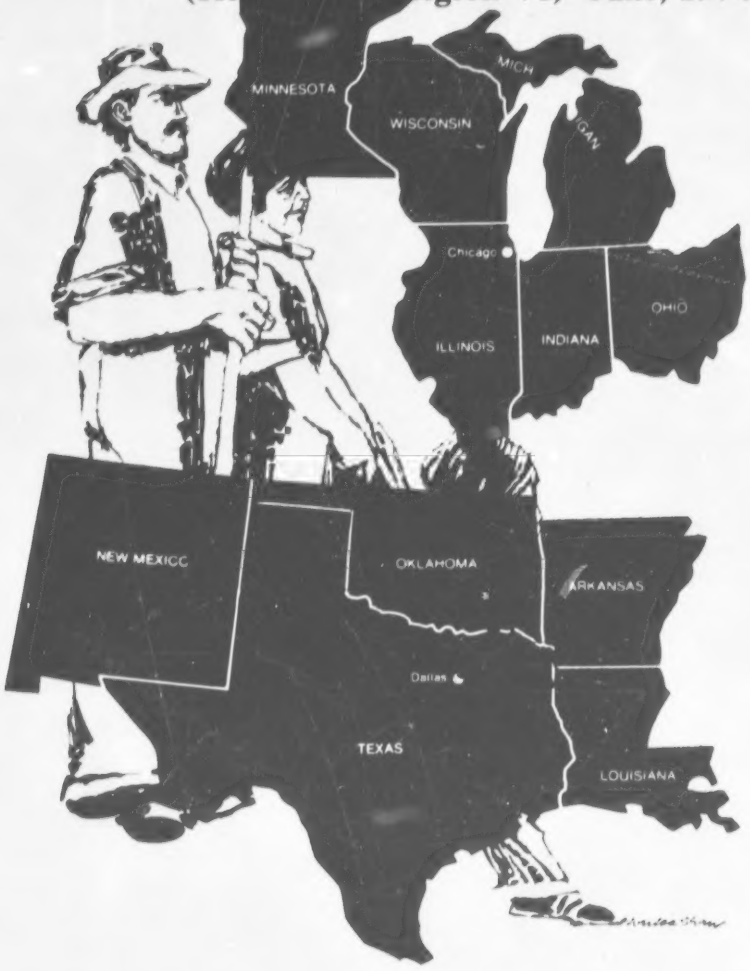
D. Inter-Regional Committee on Migrants:

During January 1973, through efforts of representatives from the Chicago and Dallas Federal Regional Councils, a mechanism to coordinate migrant related programs on an inter-regional basis was developed. The Inter-Regional Committee on Migrants evolved with subcommittees in the functional areas of Health, Education, Employment, and Social Services. It also was determined that many decisions did not require a meeting of the total Committee; therefore, an Executive Committee consisting of three members from each Region was established and represented by a member from Federal, State and local agencies.

The initial goals of the Committee were: to develop and implement an immediate and long-range plan to improve vital services to migrant people; develop effective referral, follow-up and advocacy procedures between Region V (Chicago) and Region VI (Dallas); and develop a practical information directory and establish working contact with the Migrant Student Record Transfer System.

Today, it can be said that the most important accomplishment of this Inter-Regional Committee on Migrants has been the establishment of a working relationship between Federal, State and local agencies. The Inter-Regional Migrant Services Directory, a common project of the two Federal Regional Councils was another effort by federal and state programs in both Regions to coordinate effectively their services to migrants. The purpose of the aforementioned Directory was to provide a comprehensive listing of services available to migrants in the eleven states within both Regions. The listings were made in four general categories: Education, Employment, Health, and Social Services. Such a directory has been useful to service providers who refer and/or direct their migrant clientele to existing services in another region or state. States in Region V include: Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, and Wisconsin; and in Region VI: Arkansas, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas.

Inter Re[illegible]l Migrant Services Directory
(Re[illegible]Region VI) June, 1974



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Several Inter-Regional Committee meetings were held during 1974 in both regions. The highlight of the year, however, was on March 18 and 19 when representatives from Region V and VI traveled to Seattle, Washington to discuss and review the organizational structure of the Inter-Regional Committee on Migrants with the hope to duplicate these efforts in the Denver, Kansas City and San Francisco Federal Regional Councils.

E. Manpower, Education and Training, Inc. (MET):

Manpower, Education and Trainin ,, Inc. is a private, non-profit, federally funded organization which provides training and placement services to farmworkers in Texas and Louisiana. Since 1967, MET has trained and placed migrant and seasonal farmworkers in upgraded employment. The project provides job directed education, training and supportive services to migrant and seasonal farmworkers seeking an alternative to rapidly decreasing employment and below poverty level wages in seasonal farmwork. It also provides up-graded skills training for farmworkers desiring to remain in agriculture.

MET has definite program goals for its participants and they include: (1) To enable farmworker families, some with two training participants, to break the migrant cycle completely and conclusively by involving the total family in a comprehensive relocation and employment program that considers all family members as integral parts of the effort to abandon the migrant stream; (2) To maintain a model for meeting the relocation needs of the areas involved, the assimilation needs of families being relocated and the communities being influenced by relocations, and the changing lifestyle needs of migrant participants; and (3) To serve as a catalytic agent in stimulating cooperation and coordination among local, State and Federal manpower resources in order to effect the most efficient provision of services to the target population.

MET attempts to fulfill its program objectives through the operations of a three-phase total family relocation program which provides for outreach, recruitment, educational and prevocational training, job development and placement, and supportive services. Families are recruited in the base area (Phase I) and moved to the Residential Center (Phase II) and then to final placement and resettlement of the participants on a job (Phase III). While in the program, these participants are given whatever instruction and counseling is necessary to insure their successful relocation and most of these participants will not receive vocational training, it is likely that some of them have already received some training in the home-base area. When necessary, participants are placed in on-the-job training slots when they move into Phase III (Job Development and Placement).

Three Centers compose MET's total family relocation project. These centers do not provide relocation services only; they also provide OJT, Work Experience and general supportive services. The three Centers involved are located in Eagle Pass, Laredo, and Goodrich.

The Eagle Pass Center is located in Maverick County and provides services for and draws its participants from the surrounding area. The proposed manpower services and supportive services for Eagle Pass provide training to one hundred and twenty-six families involved in relocation and thirty-six participants in Work Experience training

for a total of 162 families and individuals. The participants remain in this Base Area an average of eight weeks and then are moved to the Goodrich Residential Center for additional training and job placement.

The Laredo Center provides training to 90 families involved in relocation and 36 participants in OJT training, for a total of 126 families and individuals. The Goodrich Residential Center constitutes Phase II and III of the Total Family Relocation Project and participants from Eagle Pass and Laredo are relocated here for additional training and job placement.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND COMMENTS

As in previous years the Commission wishes to conclude this annual report with a listing of recommendations which, if acted upon, should be of benefit to our migrant farmworkers and their families. The first ten of these are being repeated from last year's report using basically the same language and we have added our "comments" to indicate the status of these recommendations at the close of 1974. The implementation of some of these recommendations may require legislative action, others will require administrative directives at the decision making level while still others may be included as part of on going agency programs by redefining program goals and guidelines. This past year the legislative committee of the Inter-Agency Task Force on Migrant Labor has been preparing basic first drafts of bills and proposals which can be introduced during the 1975 regular session of the 64th Legislature. It is obvious to all those who are committed to improving the well being of the migrants by providing them with assistance and direction, that the struggle to implement worthy suggestions must continue. This Commission is of like mind and feels that to lay them out in print for awareness and study is helpful to all concerned.

1) That the Governor of Texas make direct contact with the governors of migrant labor consumer states to offer his good offices in a nationwide coordination effort for the benefit of migrant farmworkers. Governor to governor understanding and agreement is essential if we are to realize the much sought after, but so far elusive, interstate coordination which will result in the alignment of similar agencies with similar programs and goals.

COMMENT. Governor Briscoe last year strengthened his commitment to our migrant farmworkers by the creation of the Governor's Office of Migrant Affairs, GOMA, (see page 70), but so far no positive moves have been made in the direction of the work destination states. Hopefully this will receive a high priority once the GOMA staff is properly organized.

2) Establish guidelines and implement a program for the issuance of ID cards for migrant workers. This would not only serve the migrant as identification and as an aid for establishing eligibility for Food Stamps and other special programs, but serve the state (and all interested agencies) with a fairly accurate census of the "active" migrant population. A migrant population figure becomes every day more necessary for program design and for funding estimates. The success of this registration program will depend on convincing the migrant that it is to his advantage to carry a wallet sized ID card.

COMMENT. The Inter-Regional Committee on Migrants distributed a "draft of suggested procedure for counting and providing identification to Texas migrant workers" for the purpose of stimulating comment from program operators and migrants. One key concept is to use County Judges as registrars and the other key concept is to use the forty county region of the Greater South Texas Cultural Basin as the program pilot area. A canvass and collation will be carried out early in 1975 and should help determine the future of this recommendation.

3) Two essential amendments to the Migrant Camp Law are required for clarity, better coverage and more inclusion:

> Section 1. (a) should be changed from ". . .for fifteen or more seasonal, temporary, or migrant persons, and. . ." to read ". . .for three or more single workers and/or two or more migrant families and. . ."
>
> Section 1. (c) ". . .employed in agricultural. . ." should be changed to read ". . . employed in agricultural or related industry. . ." The addition of these three words is necessary to include migrants who are working in processing plants, canneries and cotton gins whose inclusion is at present being contested.

COMMENT. The Task Force's legislative committee has prepared a tailor made draft containing these two suggested amendments which will be introduced in the 64th Legislature for its consideration.

4) That the Texas State Department of Health get back into the migrant business at the program administrative level where it was for ten years. The absurdity of operating federally funded local migrant health clinics in Texas without any control or intervention on the part of the official state health agency is obvious. If further federal monies are denied, then the state of Texas should supply the funds to reactivate the migrant subdivision.

5) The Labor Camp Inspection Program of the Texas State Department of Health should be substantially increased in both funds and staff in order to adequately cope with the work load mandated to the Department by the Migrant Labor Camp Law. This recommendation will be even more urgent if the Legislature approves the amendments proposed in 3) as this will increase considerably the number of labor camps to be inspected and licensed.

COMMENT. This matter was considered in the Health Department's budget application and the final outcome rests with the Legislature's Appropriations and Finance committees.

6) Create a consortium, or interagency group, of the Texas Industrial Commission, the Texas Employment Commission, the Greater South Texas Cultural Basin, the Texas Department of Community Affairs and the federal Economic Development Administration to try to improve the dismal economic situation in South Texas. The time has come to convert planning to action if this region is to be helped in its struggle for development. Undoubtedly this will require monetary subsidies on the part of both the state and federal governments as South Texas is so underdeveloped and further, because this region contains the nation's most economically depressed area as is proven by past as well as present statistics.

7) Provide the additional funding and staff necessary to permit the Department of Labor and Standards (formerly the Texas Bureau of Labor Statistics) to carry out its mandate of monitoring the Labor Agency Law. At present, the department is attempting to police recruiters of agriculture and common labor to assure compliance with the law and trying to combat the employment of illegal aliens in the Lower Rio Grande Valley

with just one inspector and one secretary/clerk. This situation has been untenable for a decade but now it is even more so when one considers the multiple problems caused by the ever increasing numbers of illegal entrants into Texas.

COMMENT. The Department has prepared a preliminary draft of proposed legislation along these lines which hopefully will receive favorable consideration by the 64th Legislature.

8) Amend the Labor Agency Law, administered by the Texas Department of Labor and Standards, to require private recruiting agents as well as those representing companies to show proof that the housing where the workers will be domiciled meets federal housing standards before they can refer workers to a prospective employer.

COMMENT. Recent amendments to the Farm Labor Contractors Registration Act of 1963 (see page 63) require that crew leaders file a statement that the housing they offer their job seekers passes federal housing standards. It is long past time that employment agencies and private recruiters be required to make the same guarantee to the workers they refer.

9) Establish within state government a State Housing Authority and endow it with funds to carry out an "agricultural labor camp construction grants program" similar to the $500,000 program in Michigan. This is a fund matching program in which the state matches the owner's expenditure (not to exceed $20,000) for the cost of building or improving his farm labor housing. If the state and society insist that the housing owner provide higher standard housing then the state and society should share in its cost.

COMMENT. The legislative committee of the Inter-Agency Task Force on Migrant Labor has prepared a draft of background material on this subject that can be presented as a bill before the 64th Legislature. It is generally agreed that making grants from state funds is unconstitutional so a draft for a Joint Resolution to amend the Texas Constitution has also been prepared for legislative consideration.

10) Create within the body of the Department of Public Welfare a migrant component similar to the migrant subdivision of the Social Services departments in Michigan, Ohio, Wisconsin, Illinois, etc. The Department of Public Welfare serves the migrant farmworkers and family members using the regular procedures of its general program; however, the special requirements of migrants indicate the need for special attenttion. Creation of this subdivision would help in establishing the much needed interstate coordination that is recommended under point 1).

COMMENT. The Department of Public Welfare has expressed favor with this recommendation but being a matter of internal department staffing and expense the final decision rests with the Legislature.

*11) It is imperative that the Congress write legislation designed to control the influx of illegal aliens into the United States and thus counteract the economic and social damage caused by this malady.

COMMENT. A bill introduced by Rep. Peter Rodino which provides for a penalty being assessed employers who "knowingly" hire illegal aliens is pending in the U.S. Senate, having been twice approved in the House of Representatives.

We realize that the Rodino bill is not a complete remedy for the ills caused by illegal entrants but it is a step in the right direction since it begins by reducing employment opportunities for the illegals. However, we would offer a warning, and a very important one we believe. Any legislation written to deter the influx of illegal aliens must contain provisions against employer's discriminatory hiring practices in order to protect thousands of our Spanish-surnamed citizens. The massive immigration into the United States from the south is based on economics (which means jobs and wages) and jobs are controlled by employers. So if we are to dry up job opportunities by denying work to unlawful aliens in agriculture or any other field, the employers must not be allowed to hire them. Under these circumstances, however, the employers who wish to avoid any possible violation of the law could simply refuse to consider job applicants of Latin background or Spanish-surname. Shunting aside our own Spanish-surnamed citizen job seekers in this way must be avoided at all cost.

*12) Provide the Immigration and Naturalization Service with adequate financial and personnel resources to enforce the present immigration laws. Whether this is done by federal legislation or through an upward adjustment in appropriations is immaterial, but it must be done if the I&NS is to confront the increasing volume of enforcement and administrative matters which are its responsibility.

In conclusion, we are happy to report that action has been taken on several of last year's recommendations and from the COMMENTS the reader can ascertain that a number of these present recommendations are "in motion". The Good Neighbor Commission will welcome comments and suggestions from its readers on these recommendations, as well as any recommendations the readers themselves may have. Hopefully we will be able to report next year that further advances have been made toward improving the well-being of the migrant farmworker and his family.

*First appearance.

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